The Outlook

Vol. 74 June 20, 1903 No. 8

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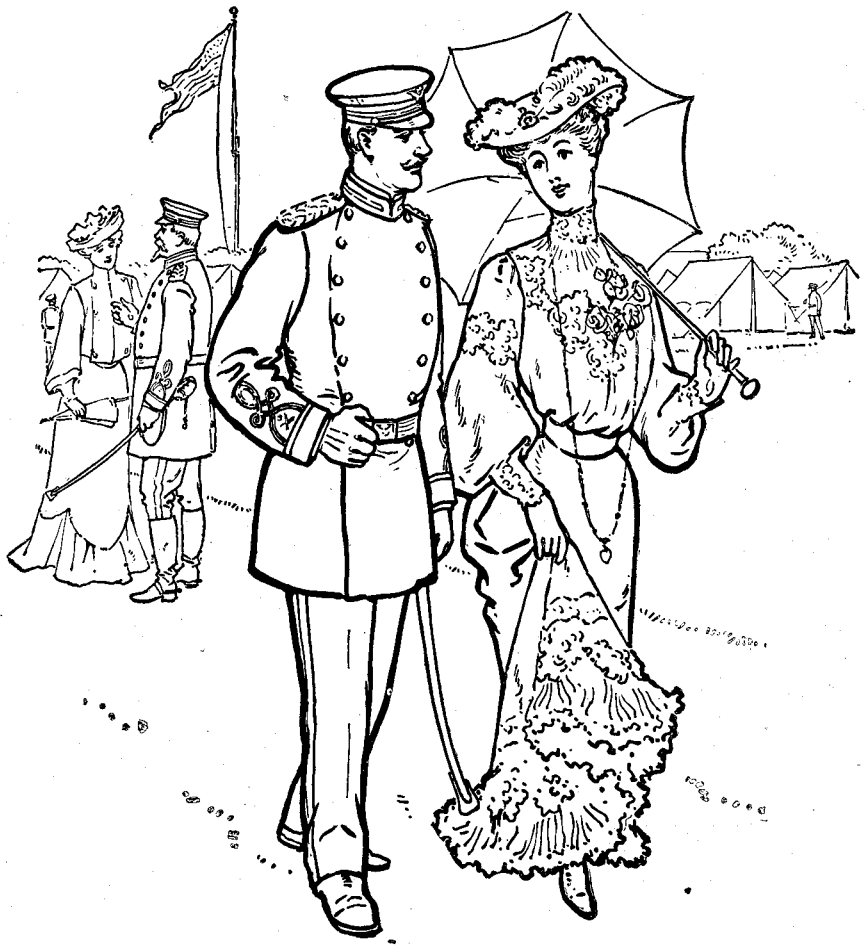

The ordinary yellow laundry soap may do well enough for scrubbing and for the coarser work in the laundry, but to get a clear snow white in the linens and muslins, to save the costly embroideries and the sheer and delicate fabrics, to avoid the unpleasant odor that is often too perceptible in the towels and bed linen, use Ivory Soap, a pure soap made of only the cleanest, best materials.

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The Outlook

Published Weekly

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The Servian Slaughter Last week the King and Queen of Servia, Nikodem and Nikola Maschin (the Queen's brothers), Zingar Markovic (the Premier), two Cabinet Ministers, and several other persons, were slain by army officers at Belgrade, the capital. As these murders occurred simultaneously and in several different places, a carefully arranged plot for the destruction of the government was revealed; later events would indicate that it had the secret cooperation, or at least the consent, of almost the entire corps of officers. At midnight on Wednesday, June 10, a battalion of infantry marched out of its barracks and silently occupied every approach to the royal palace. The guard inside the building had been corrupted, and when the forty officers selected to commit the murder pressed forward, the gates were flung open. Yet even under the guidance of the traitor Naumovic, the King's aide-de-camp, the task of finding the King and Queen was not easy, since the latter had been aroused by the shooting of a servant who remained faithful to his trust, and had taken refuge in a closet behind a barred door. According to some accounts, Naumovic demanded that Alexander abdicate and proclaim his Queen an unworthy woman. Alexander's reply was to shoot Naumovic on the spot. Then the assassins shot the King and Queen, mutilated their bodies with sword-thrusts, and threw them into the courtyard. The slaughter scene in Sardou's "Theodora" was thus strikingly paralleled, save for the anachronism of the occurrence of the recent event in a modern, twentieth-century city, and not in the Byzantium of the sixth century. At the same time in other places the other murders were being accomplished. This wholesale policy of "thorough" has hardly been equaled in modern times. While the expulsion of the Obrenovic family by the people might have been accepted as a welcome sign of national self-respect, the horrible slaughter perpetrated by trusted army officers will be rightly interpreted as significant of a barbarism which indicates that the people in whose name it has been perpetrated are unworthy to possess and are unable to maintain an independent national life.

❀

The Reigning Families Ever since 1804, when Servia emerged from Turkish tyranny, two families, now one, now the other, have held supreme power. The brigand and swine-raiser Kara (black) George was the founder of Servian autonomy. Having led a successful revolt against the Turkish janissaries, he was made Prince of Servia under the Sultan's sovereignty. Kara George pleased the democratic folk by allowing his daughter to carry water from the public well like any other peasant girl, even though her peasant father had become Prince. He made, however, one capital mistake in fleeing to Austrian territory during the next war with Turkey. This was the opportunity of Milos Obrenovic, another swine-raiser. He stayed behind, and led the people so strenuously that the Sultan was constrained to recognize him as Prince of Servia, supplanting the renegade Black George. When the latter returned to Servia, Milos had him assassinated. After two Obrenovic generations, a revolution placed Alexander Karageorgevic, son of Black George, on the throne (1842). He reigned seventeen years, during which time, by the Treaty of Paris (1856), Servia was taken under the protection of the Powers. When the Servians deposed Alexander, they reinstated the Obrenovic dynasty. Ten years later the murder of Black George was avenged by the assassination of Milos's son, Michael. The connection of the Karageorgevic

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family with this event was so evident that the Servian legislative body declared them barred from the succession. Then, as now, the plan was to have Prince Peter Karageorgevic obtain the supreme power, but the plot failed, and Michael's nephew, Milan, became prince and later king. He was in every respect a degenerate. Though he succeeded in persuading a beautiful Russian, Natalie Keschko, to marry him, her influence was not sufficient to keep the Servians from compelling Milan to abdicate (1889) in favor of his only legitimate son, Alexander, thirteen years old. Thenceforth Milan lived a disreputable life in Paris, where the Jockey Club finally expelled for cheating at cards the Servian who had not exposed himself under fire when commanding his army against the Bulgarians (1885). Milan died recently, unpitied and unmourned. His later career would have furnished Daudet with new material for "Les Rois en Exil." Alexander proved as great a profligate as his father had been, but on a lower scale of boorishness; and he sought in vain for a bride among the eligible princesses of Europe. Finally, like his father, he married a woman not of noble birth, Draga Maschin, nine years his senior. Childless, and foiled in her effort to pass off a spurious child as her own, she has latterly endeavored to obtain the succession for her brother, Nikodem, a man apparently known chiefly for his vicious stupidity. According to the despatches, the draft of a bill with marginal notes written by the late King was found in the palace. It provided the proclamation of Nikodem Maschin as heir to the throne. This discovery is held by the assassins as complete justification for their action. After the assassination of Alexander and his wife and supporters, a provisional Government, formed in the interest of the Karageorgevic dynasty, issued a proclamation that the Skuptshina, or Parliament, would meet June 15 to elect a monarch. Everywhere in and about the capital troops were posted and field guns placed in position to deal quickly with any opposition to the new Government's will. The Skuptshina met according to this proclamation, and, after first passing a resolution of general amnesty, unanimously elected Prince Peter Karageorgevic King of Servia.

The Debate in the House of Commons

Last week, in the House of Commons, occurred one of the most notable debates in recent years. The Chamber was packed with members, peers, and spectators, as it has not been since the day of Home Rule. The debate was precipitated by Mr. Chamberlain's plan of preferential tariffs for the colonies' benefit, but, as the Speaker ruled any discussion on this out of order, the speeches were restricted as much as possible to an amendment offered by Mr. Chaplin, an avowed protectionist, which declared that the remission of the corn tax involves a needless and injurious disturbance of trade and a serious loss in revenue. The most striking speeches in regard to this amendment were made by Mr. Ritchie, Chancellor of the Exchequer, who defended his action; by Sir Michael Hicks Beach, ex-Chancellor, who reminded the House that he might still be standing in the governmental ranks had his protests against the growth of expenditure been received with greater sympathy by his colleagues; by Mr. Arthur Elliot, Financial Secretary to the Treasury, who strove to commit the Government unreservedly to a policy of free trade; by Mr. Asquith, the Liberal leader, who proclaimed that the abandonment of the corn tax was an insoluble mystery if the consumer did not pay the tax, and yet, as Mr. Chamberlain maintained he did not, the speaker asked if this were "a magnificent piece of international attachment whereby Great Britain would make an annual present of $12,500,000 to the United States;" finally, by the Radical leader, Sir Charles Dilke, who, admitting that America and Germany were reaping much prosperity, showed that Great Britain's foreign exports were equal to the combined exports of the United States, Germany, and France; further, he pointed out Mr. Chamberlain's error in attributing the abounding prosperity in the United States to the policy of protection, since, "with their enormous resources and great energy, the American people ought long since to have taken the first place in international commerce."

❀

Mr. Balfour's Reply

By a dexterous but not, as has been claimed by some, an evasive speech, Mr. Balfour summed up the case for the Government

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after the two days' debate. So brilliant and large-minded was this speech that not only did he "give Chamberlain enough rope to hang himself on," as an irreverent English journal puts it, but also solidified the case for Great Britain's time-honored policy so as to make a presumably large vote for it still larger. Mr. Chaplin's amendment was defeated by the crushing division of 424 to 28. The 28 votes, therefore, may be taken as representing the protectionist party in the House of Commons, although it must be added that a not inconsiderable number of members are perhaps waiting to be convinced of the desirability of a certain measure of protection as a means of holding the colonies more closely to the mother country. Mr. Balfour defended the imposition of the corn duty in 1902 and its withdrawal in 1903, declaring that it was an entirely legitimate war tax; that it had not had any materially protective effect—yet in the next breath he admitted that he did not realize how great the tax would be on the raw material used by the farmer. Answering those who asked, "If the tax is desirable, why is it removed?" Mr. Balfour said, "We put it on because we wanted the money, and took it off because we ceased to want money." Replying to the Liberal taunts that it was intolerable to have Cabinet Ministers proclaiming irreconcilable views on a matter more vital than any other to imperial unity, Mr. Balfour's tone was one of unusual vehemence as he instanced important divisions of opinion in the Liberal Cabinets of 1885, 1892, and 1894, and quoted his old friend and political opponent, Mr. Gladstone, "in rightly holding that the differences shown in the speeches of his colleagues did not matter as long as there was common action." Mr. Balfour added: "That is true, sound, constitutional doctrine, and you will not improve constitutional conditions if you endeavor to draw a Minister into the bonds of mere discipline; certainly I am not going to exercise an authority over my colleagues which I would never have submitted to myself." As to the charge that he had not made a specific declaration on certain great fiscal, colonial, and international problems raised in recent speeches, Mr. Balfour declared that, though a believer in free trade, he did not regard it as a fetich; that he had absolutely an open mind regarding the necessity for any alterations in a system which was founded to suit conditions fifty years ago. In maintaining an open mind and the liberty of individual judgment, Mr. Balfour will have the sympathy and support of men everywhere; what his country needs, however, at this juncture, is the sturdy firmness either of Mr. Chamberlain in attacking free trade by a system of colonial preferential treatment or the equally sturdy firmness of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach in defending Great Britain's time-honored fiscal policy.

❀

The International Anti-Alcohol Congress in Bremen

The ninth international Congress to oppose alcoholism, recently held in Bremen, Germany, was a striking demonstration of the advance of the temperance movement in Continental Europe. To begin with, the city in which it met was remarkably sympathetic in its attitude toward the great throng of delegates who assembled, the Mayor of the city welcoming them in a speech which indorsed not only the movement but also the public activity of women in its behalf, while the Senate of the city entertained four hundred prominent members of the Congress at a costly banquet in the City Hall. Nor was the city's welcome merely official, as over two thousand of its citizens were members of the Good Templar and Blue Cross Societies, while a great many others were enrolled in a Moderation Society which has been doing active work in combating all use of spirits. The German Government showed its sense of the present gravity of the alcohol question by contributing ten thousand marks to the organizing committee of the Congress, and nearly all the nations of northern Europe sent representatives—Germany sending her Secretary of the Interior. The Congress was held during the Easter vacation, when the greatest number of teachers could be present, and the first session was on Easter Monday, when the laborers have a holiday. On this day the delegates of different laborers' total abstinence societies held an all-day conference at the headquarters of the Social Democrats, and in the evening a social entertainment was held in the same building. A later meet-

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ing of the whole Congress was under the management of the Laborers' Total Abstinence League, and singularly encouraging reports were given as to the attitude of organized labor toward liquor-drinking. Fortunately, when the time came for general discussion, the Austrian Socialist, Dr. Froelich, who has been the indefatigable organizer of laborers' total abstinence societies, was called upon to defend his agitation against the attack of a local editor of a labor paper, and this impromptu debate disclosed the strength of the appeal he was making to workmen to stop drinking for the sake of advancing the interests of their cause and their class. Another of the evening meetings was under the management of the Good Templars, and this was enlivened by musical, dramatic, and athletic entertainments given by members of the order. The scientific discussions which have formed the chief feature of each of the international congresses were taken part in by distinguished educators and medical authorities from nearly all over Europe. There were differing sentiments as to how far individuals need to go in throwing their influence against the drink evil, but there was no difference as to the direction in which the influence of all thoughtful men should be thrown.

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Opium Traffic in the Philippines

The papers report that the Philippine Commission has prepared a bill for the regulation of the opium traffic in the islands, under which a monopoly of the business will be put up for competitive bidding and sold to the highest bidder, as was done under Spanish rule. The revenue derived from the monopoly the Commission propose to employ in sending young Filipinos to this country to be educated, building additional schoolhouses in the islands, and increasing the pay of the local teachers. All opium imported will be recorded, all sales will be recorded by the owner of the monopoly, with the name and address of the purchaser, and all sale will be prohibited except to full-blooded Chinamen. It is said that this is substantially the method which the English and the Japanese have adopted. The revenue to the Government under the Spanish system was $650,000 a year, but it is anticipated that under the regulations proposed by the Commission the sales will be less and the Government income accordingly less. Details of legislation must necessarily be left largely to the Philippine Commission until an efficient system of self-government is organized, and then it must be left to the self-governing body, subject to a certain measure of control by the Commission. We have great confidence in the moral judgment of the Philippine Commission; but there seem to us to be serious objections to this plan, as it is reported in the daily press. (1) It is said that prohibition is impracticable. It appears to us that it would be easier to maintain absolute prohibition than a prohibition discriminating along race lines, allowing opium-smoking to Chinamen and making it a penal offense if indulged in by Filipinos or Americans. (2) All monopolies are seriously objectionable. Monopoly granted and guaranteed by government is doubly objectionable. Monopoly in a vice granted and guaranteed by government is trebly objectionable. There is practically no difference of opinion among intelligent men that opium-smoking is a vice. It is condemned by all medical authorities, and is strongly protested against by the best class of Chinamen, the race for whose indulgence the proposed license of opium traffic in the Philippines is to be established. (3) When a representative legislature is elected in the Philippines, and is intrusted with authority to declare what is the will of the people of those islands, if it desires to admit opium under certain restrictions, there would be much to be said in favor of leaving to it the decision of the question. At present, however, the government in the Philippine Islands is purely a paternal government. So long as such a government is maintained, the American people are responsible for determining whether opium-smoking shall be allowed, and under what conditions. There is, therefore, in this case no such question of home rule as is raised in the United States by the issue presented between local option and State prohibition of the liquor traffic. (4) If any sale of opium is to be allowed at all, except for medicinal purposes, it appears to us that the sale should be conducted by

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the Government, through salaried agents. No man should be allowed to make a profit out of the sale; for whenever there is such a profit, there is an incentive not only to evade the prohibition but also to stimulate to the largest possible degree the sale within the prohibited lines. For these reasons, if the proposed opium regulations are correctly reported by the press, we hope that they will be overruled by the Administration at Washington, even if the whole question has to be left in a somewhat unsettled condition until a local self-government is organized in the islands. Until that time the National policy should be one of prohibition.

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The "Hawaiian Case" A recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States has reaffirmed the principle involved in the Insular Cases, that the United States may own territory which is not an integral part of the United States, though subject to it, and may govern peoples who are not citizens of the United States, though amenable to its authority. One Mankichi was tried and convicted of manslaughter in the Hawaiian courts, under the law of Hawaii, without having been indicted by a grand jury, which these laws did not require. His conviction took place after the islands had been annexed to the United States under a resolution which provided that "the municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands . . . not contrary to the Constition of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine." The Constitution of the United States provides that "no person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury." Mankichi demanded release from imprisonment on the ground that he had not been so indicted, and the Court refused the demand. The refusal was based on the grounds: (1) That the islands were by annexation made subject to the sovereignty of the United States, expressed through Federal legislation; (2) that in interpreting the clause "not contrary to the Constitution of the United States," regard must be had by the Court to the plain meaning of the legislators, and it cannot be believed that it was their intention to abolish the provisions of law already existing in Hawaii, while nothing was put in their stead. The resolution of annexation was adopted July 7, 1898; not until April 30, 1900, was Hawaii organized as a Territory of the United States, and the laws of the United States extended over the islands. The Court holds that no legislation inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States, adopted by Hawaii *after* annexation, would have been valid; but that the resolution did not operate to make void legislation of Hawaii prior to annexation, if the effect of overlooking such legislation would be "the destruction of existing provisions conducive to the peace and good order of the community." The same judges who dissented from the decision of the Court in the previous Insular Cases dissented in this case; but the decision of the Court is reinforced by the coinciding opinions of Judges Holmes and Day, who have been appointed to the Supreme Court Bench since those cases were decided. The Hawaiian case thus emphasizes and reinforces the doctrine, which must now be regarded as established constitutional law, that the United States may acquire territory, and that, not only may Congress legislate for such territory as being outside the provisions of the United States Constitution, but that the Court will hold that these provisions do not apply if their application will "result in the destruction of existing provisions conducive to the peace and good order of the community." We think that Mr. Justice Harlan in his dissenting opinion correctly interprets its significance in his declaration that "it assumes the possession by Congress of power quite as omnipotent as that possessed by the English Parliament"—that is, power over territories acquired and peoples brought under our sovereignty, but not incorporated in the National organization

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The Postal Scandals The results of the investigation so far carried on of the various charges made against officials in the Post-Office Department show at least grave irregularities. We have already noted the arrest of Mr.

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Machen and Mr. Miller on the charges of receiving bribes from manufacturers who sold certain articles to the Department, and the resignation or suspension of several other officials in connection with the same matter. These charges will now, of course, be passed upon by the courts, and it can only be said that the evidence presented against these men by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Bristow, shows a strong *prima facie* case. This matter has no doubt led the Department to give more serious attention to the charges made by Mr. Tulloch of political favoritism and irregularities in appointments and promotions. While the Postmaster-General at first showed some disposition to minimize and ridicule these charges, it must be added that he also gave orders for their careful investigation, and it must be noted also that these irregularities did not take place during Mr. Payne's incumbency. Most of them appear to be charged, as regards ultimate responsibility, to Mr. Perry S. Heath, formerly First Assistant Postmaster-General. A report has just been made by Mr. Procter, the Civil Service Commissioner, detailing the results of the evidence heard by him at the request of Postmaster-General Payne. This evidence related to the conduct of the post-office in Washington, but Commissioner Procter's report states very positively and very significantly that the irregularities discovered "were directed by the Department or requested or suggested by high Department officials, and in every case came to the Postmaster with all the force of a direction." Mr. Procter's report indicates that it was a common custom, at least when Mr. Heath was in office, to have appointments made to the Washington post-office (and apparently also to many other local post-offices) where new employees were not at all needed, and with the express intent of taking advantage by promoting them to positions in the Department without passing them through the classification required by the Civil Service rules. Mr. Procter says that the astonishing number of three hundred and eighty employees thus entered the service upon considerations other than fitness as ascertained by the competitive examinations. Mr. Procter in part exonerates the Washington Postmaster, Mr. Merritt, on the express ground that appointments of this kind were forced upon him by his superiors at times even over his protest. Mr. Procter says of these acts:

> They show a wide departure in policy from a strict regard for the public interest, and afford indications that the Department used the Washington post-office for political and personal purposes to an extent which left the authority of the postmaster in transfers and appointments of this sort but little more than nominal, and placed the office in many respects in the relation of a bureau to the Department.
>
> The investigation seems to show clearly that most of the irregularities herein set forth were directed by the Department or requested or suggested by high departmental officials, and in either case came to the postmaster with all the force of direction.

The arrest of Machen and his associates on charges of receiving bribes, the disclosures concerning the Washington post-office, the allegations that improper promotions have been made in the New York post-office, and the assertion that the confidential clerk of the Postmaster-General, Mr. H. H. Rand, and other post-office officials have allowed their names to be used by swindling "get-rich-quick" concerns, whose transactions were properly a subject for suspicion by the Post-Office Department itself—all these things show that there is need for a thorough investigation of the workings of the Department. President Roosevelt, it is understood, has directed that this shall be made, that it shall be exhaustive, and that it shall cover all possible sorts of wrong-doing or corruption.

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Further Gains for Direct Legislation

Next to direct primaries the democratic movement now making the greatest headway in this country is direct legislation. Each new issue of the "Direct Legislation Record" (Newark, New Jersey) contains the account of some further legislative advance for the movement, and a legislative advance for this movement which aims to abridge the power of Legislatures is always indicative of a still greater advance anong the general public. Most of the signal victories have been in the Central and Western States, but in Massachusetts the Legislature has this year given favorable consideration to the proposed constitutional amendment permitting the voters themselves, by widely

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signed petitions, to secure the submission of future amendments. In the South also the movement is making some headway, particularly in Texas. The strength of the movement, however, lies in what used to be called the West. Illinois, as we have previously reported, already has a "Public Opinion" law, under which the judgment of the voters may be learned upon particular propositions, and under which they have indorsed the entire direct legislation programme by a majority of six to one. In South Dakota, Utah, and Oregon direct legislation constitutional amendments have already been adopted, and in Missouri, Colorado, California, and Washington two-thirds of the present Legislatures were pledged before their election to support such amendments. The work of pledging legislators is being prosecuted with great vigor by a non-partisan "Federation for Majority Rule," with headquarters at Washington. This association, the work of which Mr. George H. Shibley is aiding and promoting, has even undertaken to apply the principle of direct legislation to National affairs by pledging Congressmen to support a plan by which the people may instruct their representatives. Nine of the sixteen Congressmen from Missouri have given their adherence to this plan. In the Missouri campaign preceding the election of the present Legislature the Democratic party indorsed direct legislation, while the Republican party remained neutral; but the referendum amendment submitted by the Democratic Legislature is now being sharply arraigned by the Republicans because of its conservatism. The Republicans charge that the Democratic majority in the Legislature has attempted to maintain partisan control by making the promised referendum to the voters needlessly difficult. In Oregon, where the radical constitutional amendment was adopted, by a vote of eleven to one, year before last, the recent Legislature adopted an act providing that the text of all laws submitted to the people, together with arguments for and against them furnished without cost to the State by responsible organizations favoring and opposing them, shall be sent by the Secretary of State to each voter in advance of the election, in order that he may be informed as to the exact nature and merits of the proposal. In Oregon, as in Switzerland, direct legislation is to be utilized to the full as a means of popular education upon public affairs. This movement, as a whole, whatever may be thought of details, is an application of the motto, "The cure for the evils of democracy is more democracy."

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Anthracite Combination Wins Suit

The action before the Inter-State Commerce Commission begun by William R. Hearst, the proprietor of the New York "American," charging the anthracite coal roads with maintaining unreasonable rates by means of an illegal combination, has resulted for the time being in a victory for the roads. The interesting testimony brought before the Commission, it will be recalled, was interrupted by the refusal of the roads to produce certain contracts, by which the complainant's attorney offered to prove the illegality of the conduct of the combination. One of these contracts related to the purchase of the Temple Iron Company at an exorbitant figure to bribe its owners not to build a competing railroad, and others to contracts with shippers giving them for their coal a certain percentage of the price it brought at tide-water. The Inter-State Commerce Commission ordered that these contracts be produced, and when the roads refused, the matter was brought before Judge Lacombe, of the United States Circuit Court. Judge Lacombe's decision sustains the roads in all important points—even attaching "great force" to a minor contention that Mr. Hearst had no right to prosecute a case before the Commission, as he was merely a consumer of coal and not a shipper. This is rather an alarming suggestion, for if consumers have no right to bring complaints of unreasonable freight rates, then the chief sufferers from such rates are often without a remedy under the Inter-State Commerce Law. Upon the chief points at issue between the roads and the Commission the Court decided that the contracts giving the mining companies a certain percentage of the average price of coal at tide-water were not inter-State contracts regulating freight rates, but local contracts for the purchase of coal, and that the contract with the Temple Iron

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Company to prevent the building of a new coal road had no relation to the forms of pooling forbidden by the Inter-State Commerce Law. Upon the latter point, however, the Court's decision indicates that another course of action is open to the complainant. It says:

> The contracts in question are parts of the machinery by which this combination prevented the building of the new road. If the defendants were being prosecuted under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act for having entered into a combination or contract in restraint of trade, the contracts would be relevant. This, however, is not a prosecution under the Anti-Trust Act, nor is the Inter-State Commerce Commission the forum before whom such a prosecution is conducted.

The Commission is naturally disappointed in the decision, and proposes to appeal to the higher court. The decision seems to emphasize the need of legislation conferring greater powers of control over inter-State commerce by the Commission.

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Child Labor Restriction

The restriction of child labor at the South accomplished by the now famous Alabama Committee is hardly greater than the restriction of child labor in New York accomplished by the New York Committee organized a year ago. Former agitations had made the time ripe for action, and the Committee, by effectively marshaling the forces supporting its reform bills, convinced reluctant legislators that the general public demanded their enactment. With but few modifications, the entire programme of the Committee was accepted, and the following far-reaching changes made in the laws protecting the freedom of childhood:

> First. The perjury of parents regarding the ages of their children made difficult by requiring the transcript of church, school, or other public record establishing the accuracy of their statements.
>
> Second. Vacation work in cities prohibited for children under fourteen (instead of twelve as heretofore).
>
> Third. A nine-hour limit substituted for a ten-hour limit upon the store and factory work of children under sixteen.
>
> Fourth. The employment of messenger, delivery, and office boys under fourteen forbidden.
>
> Fifth. The work of newsboys in New York and Buffalo prohibited absolutely for children under ten years of age, and restricted to wholesome hours by a license system for children between ten and fourteen.
>
> Sixth. The compulsory education law made to support the child labor law, by requiring school attendance up to the age of fourteen, instead of twelve as heretofore.

The Committee, of which Mr. Robert Hunter, of the University Settlement, is Chairman, realize that advances so far-going invite a counter attack on the part of those wishing to secure a profit from the labor of uneducated and undeveloped children. They therefore propose to continue their activities during the coming year, not only to guard the legislative gains already made, but also to see that laws secured are honestly enforced, and to ascertain to what extent the injurious forms of labor prohibited in the factories are maintained in the tenement-houses. The work is almost of National importance, for in New York City, the port of entry for nearly all our immigrants, and the stopping place for so large a portion of the poorest, there is especial danger of the development of a class of servile laborers inconsistent with American ideals. The work of the Committee is necessarily costly, and deserves the support of all believers in an educated citizenship.

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Corrupt Labor Representatives

The two most interesting strikes in the country last week were each affected by the evidence of corruption brought against certain of the labor leaders. In New York Samuel J. Parks, the walking delegate of the Housesmiths', Bridgemen's, and Structural Iron Workers' Union, was arrested upon the charge of extortion, and in Chicago President G. W. Walton, of the Restaurant-Keepers' Association, was deposed from his position for attempting to act as mediator between the leaders of the Waiters' Union and his own association, by getting the latter to bribe the former to settle the strike. The New York case was of exceptional importance by reason of the clearness of the evidence upon which the arrest of the walking delegate was made. This contained among other things a check for two thousand dollars given to Parks to call off a strike in the Hecla Iron Works, and cashed for him at the office of the Fuller Construction Company. This check, according to the testimony submitted, was, at Parks's request, not originally made out to him but to a subordinate officer of

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one of the construction companies, and by him made over to Parks, whose indorsement is on the back of the check. In his defense Parks claims that he took the money for his union, and some of its members have shown a desire to shield him; but the judgment of the public has not been influenced by these defenses. Other charges of extortion from other firms have since been brought against Parks, and the evidence against him indicates that he has made large sums of money by selling his influence with his union to employers willing to buy it—sometimes creating difficulties in order to be bought off. The worst of the situation, however, is the evidence indicating that such bribing of walking delegates is of frequent occurrence, and that some of the largest construction companies paid these bribes as a matter of business policy. In such cases as these the labor leaders who demand the bribes are far more guilty than the employers who pay them to prevent losses, but the latter are also participants in the crime, whose consenting to it makes it more difficult for other employers to stand out against it. The evidence presented against Parks has materially aided the Building Trades Employers' Association in pressing its demand for the acceptance of a plan of arbitration in which walking delegates are denied a right to represent their unions. Nearly half of the building trades unions have seceded from the general association because the latter refused to promote a settlement. The seceding unions represent, as a rule, the more skilled mechanics. In Chicago the Waiters' Union tied up nearly all the important hotels on Friday of last week, arbitrarily refusing to arbitrate with the employers' association—organized labor declaring that it would treat only with individual employers. This semi-humorous reversal of the conditions presented by the not infrequent refusal of organized capital to treat with other than individual employees aroused public indignation, and the refusal of other unions to support the waiters made it easy for the employers to engage new help.

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A People's Forum

The recent completing of the season's work of the People's Institute of New York City offers a suitable occasion for a brief review of the really remarkable scope of that season's activities. As our readers know, the People's Institute has been carried on for about six years under the management of Professor Charles Sprague Smith. Its main intention is to afford a People's Forum for the discussion of questions affecting the people's interests and to afford an opportunity to hear ethical addresses. The underlying principle of the work is that of the brotherhood of mankind and the unity of the interests of the whole people. In the six months of the last season one hundred and twenty lectures were delivered, with an average attendance of between five and six thousand people; classes in political science, ethics, literature, and language were carried on through a club now controlled by the Institute; a Harlem branch provided for fifty lectures, with an average weekly attendance of five hundred. These figures give only in a statistical way—and one by no means representative—the amount of work done. What the influence of the discussions may be is shown by the fact that among the votes taken at the close of the discussions and sent to Albany, as an expression of the people's feeling, was one against the proposed weakening of the tenement-house law, which stood 1,700 to 1, and one in favor of legislation about child labor, which stood 1,400 to nothing. Perhaps the scope of the Institute work may be indicated by the titles of a few of the topics taken up in the Sunday night programmes: Political Corruption (Dr. S. S. Wise); Brotherhood (Dr. A. H. Bradford); Our Philippine Problem (Dr. J. G. Schurman); The Moral Certainty of Jesus (Rev. T. R. Slicer); Christian Socialism (Dr. George Hodges); The Church and the Workingman (Rev. Merle Wright); The Art of Making a Living (Mr. L. F. Post); Arbitration (Mr. W. H. Baldwin, Jr.); The Salvation Army (Commander Booth Tucker); Abraham Lincoln (Dr. S. P. Cadman); What is Religion? (Lyman Abbott). The programme for other evenings of the week (carried on in co-operation with the Cooper Union) dealt with natural science, history, evolution, municipal administration, Shakespeare, Italian art, and many other topics, and included also excellent musical concerts. The power of such an institute,

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carried on, as it largely is, through the people rather than for the people, can hardly be overestimated. It is now proposed to provide a home for the various organizations that have been engaged in this people's movement. Of the names suggested for this home, that most commonly used—the People's Palace—seems to us the least descriptive and satisfactory; the People's Forum might be better; but we fail to see why the building as well as the movement might not be properly and without confusion called the People's Institute. It is particularly pleasing to record the fact that the people who attend the meeting will themselves be called upon to assist as their opportunities allow in raising the funds, and that one appeal directly to the audience resulted in trebling the usual voluntary contributions and in eliciting single gifts from workmen which represent to them a larger proportion of their actual capital than the gift of enormous sums does to a millionaire. If this project is carried to a successful outcome, it will provide for an audience of from four to eight thousand; will have a stage suitable for the presenting of plays; will contain an organ, so that great choral works may be given; and, in short, serve as a People's Church (undenominational, creedless, and non-proselyting); a People's Forum, where men eminent in public life may render an account of their trust and all questions of real public interest may be discussed; a People's Theater; and a school of literature, art, and science.

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The Commencement Season

Many important Commencements were held last week, foremost among them those at Columbia and at Princeton. Columbia graduated eight hundred and fifty-four students, and President Butler announced gifts amounting to half a million dollars, $300,000 of which is to be devoted to a dormitory of the best order, $100,000 to be used for the law school, and $100,000 for the College of Physicians and Surgeons. The announcement was also made that South Field would be acquired by the University on October 1; and an appeal was made on behalf of the trustees for further contributions to this object. President Wilson, speaking at the one hundred and fifty-sixth annual Commencement at Princeton, announced that he had no statement of recent gifts to make, but that the time was ripe and that during the coming year the University would reap a harvest from the beneficence of its friends. At Columbia the most important honorary degrees conferred were those of Doctor of Science on Peter Cooper Hewitt, a very promising scientist of this city; on Professor Thomson, of the University of Cambridge; the Rev. Dr. George A. Gordon, minister of the Old South Church, Boston, received the degree of Doctor of Sacred Theology; M. Jules Jusserand, Ambassador of France at Washington, received the degree of Doctor of Laws, and Governor Odell that of Doctor of Laws. At Princeton Professor Sloane was honored with the degree of Doctor of Laws, and Professors Corson and Crane, of Cornell University, with the degree of Doctor of Letters. The announcement that Professor Henry B. Fine has been appointed Dean of the Faculty at Princeton was received with profound satisfaction by the students and by all who know Professor Fine's unusual combination of scholarship, broad sympathies, and sound judgment. He has many of the qualities which have identified the position of Dean with the late Professor Murray in the minds of hundreds of Princeton men.

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The International Missionary Union

During the first week of June the twentieth annual meeting of the Union brought together at Clifton Springs, New York, over a hundred and fifty representatives of the missions of American and European societies in foreign lands. Among matters of public interest that came up, the present conditions in the Congo Free State were denounced as "Christian cannibalism," and a letter of protest against their continuance was addressed to the King of the Belgians. First-hand testimony to the atrocities there perpetrated under Belgian rule was presented from members of the Union now in Africa and from others present at the meeting. The Rev. Dr. Nassau, from the west coast of Africa, affirms that the recent barbarities, for

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which the syndicate engaged in collecting rubber is responsible, exceed the worst features of the worst days of slave-hunting. The activity of Protestant missionaries in exposing these horrors is resented by a vindictive policy of the Belgian authorities in Africa, in excluding them from land essential to their work. American Presbyterians have been threatened with forcible eviction unless they vacate their station on the Kasai River, and other missionaries have been expelled from Juapa. British Baptists have rendered much service to the Congo Free State by contributions of charts and surveys on the upper Congo, but they are now refused the land privileges necessary for the extension of their work. The letter addressed to King Leopold remonstrates against this obstructive policy, as well as against the cruelties whose exposure is thus resented. The Czar's recent proclamation of religious liberty was also discussed. The English translations of it are not free from all uncertainty. It is regarded as conceding personal liberty in worship, but no opportunity for missionary effort. The opening of industrial schools in connection with other missionary work, which has been a recent subject of discussion, was presented in a large number of papers and addresses, and received hearty indorsement. The papers and addresses which occupied an entire session with the topic "Twenty Years Ago and Now" exhibited the encouragement given by political, social, and religious changes during that period. Among the speakers were Dr. Goodrich, of Peking, who preached the annual sermon, Miss Ellen Stone, and the Rev. J. H. House, of Salonika, who was so efficient in freeing Miss Stone from captivity. Dr. House's account of the complications in Turkey, where he has resided thirty years, will merit attention when published.

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Liturgical Revision

The topic most discussed in the meeting of the General Synod of the Reformed Church was the revision of its liturgy, particularly in the sacramental parts. It was proposed in the form for infant baptism to omit the words "conceived and born in sin." In the form for the communion service, instead of specifying classes of evil-doers that are warned not to partake—"thieves, liars, drunkards, adulterers," etc.—it was proposed to warn in general terms those "who are continuing in open and unrepented sin." In the marriage service it was proposed to omit the word "obey." The result was that the two forms, old and new, will be submitted to the Classes for final action upon the question. Whatever their decision, individual ministers will probably exercise, as they do now, some liberty of variation. The annual reports show a gain of about two per cent. in membership during the year. The evangelistic movement, whose specific aim is to quicken the religious life of the Church, was reported as being strongly promoted, especially by the Western churches. Consideration of a stringent rule concerning the remarriage of a divorced person was laid over till another year.

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Congregational Education Society

An advance of twenty per cent. in the receipts of a single year is an unusual thing to report, but none too much for the needs of the important educational field worked by this old Society. The Christian school, academy, and college have an influential part in the moral development of the rural regions of the far West and Southwest, by giving permanence to the results of the home missionary's work. In Utah, in New Mexico, they are indispensable in coping with degrading superstitions. One of the twenty-two academies on the Society's list was founded at Carrier, Oklahoma, when the people there were living in sod huts. Thus the primitive New England tradition is followed. The new Theological Seminary opened at Atlanta, Georgia, in 1901 is proving its peculiar adaptation to the need of the Southern field for an educated ministry. While its "Correspondence Course" reaches pastors unable to attend in person, it secures the attendance of younger men with some measure of training. Five women, all wives of ministers, have been among its students the past year. The four colleges aided by the Society all report largely increased attendance, and some students turned away for lack of room. It is strange to hear of a place in this country where, a few years ago, no Protestant could live. At that

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place, however, the Congregational Education Society has recently established a school, which now contains more than three-fourths of the children of school age.

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Religious and Educational Work in the Turkish Empire

The political unrest now existing in the Balkans calls renewed attention, it would seem, to the religious and educational work chiefly accomplished there by Americans. The American Board (Congregational) has no less than 130 organized native churches throughout the Turkish Empire and Bulgaria, twenty-five of which are self-supporting. The Board has built no church in Constantinople, although it has an organization extending to several parts of the city. It owns sites in Pera and Stambul, but a firman, or permission, to build in these sections of Constantinople has been persistently refused. Even the large congregations of Armenian and Greek Protestants, who have purchased lots to build houses of worship and have funds ready for that purpose, are prohibited from doing so by the officials. The churches already standing in Constantinople have been erected under the patronage of the various foreign embassies. The most noteworthy and significant accomplishment of the various missionary boards in Turkey has been educational rather than religious. They maintain a number of colleges of a high grade and schools of all grades. Taking the Turkish Empire as a whole, their colleges are now educating about 3,000 students and the schools about 20,000. In his recently published volume, Mr. W. E. Curtis shows Abdul Hamid, the present Sultan, to have been a decided reactionary even for a Turk. Between the time of the Crimean War and the present reign, says this author, religious liberty prevailed throughout Turkey; and the Government actually encouraged Mohammedans to enter the mission schools. They came in large numbers. Abdul Hamid's policy, however, has been to restrict education. "He would keep his people in ignorance; and he has created such a condition that no Mohammedan can attend a Protestant school without rendering himself and his family the objects of suspicion and persecution of all sorts." For instance, the father may be arrested upon false charges, sent to prison, and his property confiscated; or, as Mr. Curtis informs us, the son may be accused of "discontent" (a prevalent crime!), and be sent to prison for years; or some member of the family may be charged with membership in the "Young Turkey party"—an offense punishable by death or banishment. Mr. Curtis adds his testimony to that of others to the effect that a Christianized Mohammedan cannot live in Turkey. He is compelled to leave the country, for as soon as the fact is known he is either assassinated or thrown into prison; hence Mohammedans who will accept Christianity are very few. There is, nevertheless, a good deal of missionary work done by Protestants among the Mohammedans. One indication of this is that about five thousand copies of the Bible are sold in the Ottoman Empire every year. This would indicate a genuine interest, even if the purchasers dare not reveal their names, owing to fear of the Mohammedan priests and government officials.

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General Alexander McCook

By the death last week of General Alexander McDowell McCook, there was removed one of the few remaining really great figures of the Civil War. The son of a soldier who himself was killed in the Civil War, he was one of a family of seven brothers, all of whom fought in the war, and three of whom were killed, while four attained the rank of general. The list of engagements in which General McCook took part and in which he rendered conspicuous service to his country is a long one, and includes Indian fights dating back as far as 1854, while in the Civil War he was present at the first battle of Bull Run, at the battle of Shiloh, in the siege of Corinth, and in the campaigns which included the fight at Perryville, the relief and capture of Nashville, the march to Murfreesboro', the battle of Stone River, and that of Chickamauga. He left West Point as a lieutenant in 1852, entered the Civil War as a captain, and was rapidly promoted until the end of the war, when he held the brevet rank of Major-General. After the war he was prominent in the investigation of Indian affairs as a representative of the army, was one of the delegates

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sent by this country to the coronation of the Czar of Russia, and served as a member of a special committee for the investigation of affairs in the War Department after the war with Spain. His military rank in the regular army was that of Major-General.

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The Situation in Servia

The tyrannical autocracy of the youthful Alexander of Servia had long given sufficient justification for his deposition, though never for his assassination. A year before he reached his legal majority (eighteen) at a banquet to the Regents and Ministers, he suddenly put them all under arrest, and, declaring their duties terminated, immediately assumed control of the government. Passing over a number of lesser affronts to the people, last April he abrogated the national constitution for five minutes. He decreed the constitution's repeal, and then, as absolute monarch, annulled certain progressive laws passed under it—measures providing for freedom of meeting and of the press, above all the communal electoral law by which greater popular control of the Skuptshina or Parliament was obtained—for the zadruga, or family community, still obtains in Servia; the tribes, often a hundred strong, live in a long succession of connected dwellings and are presided over patriarchally by the head of the family. Alexander further deposed the judges *en bloc*, and then restored the constitution to validity! By such acts, resulting in the disgrace and retirement of a number of his ablest counselors, Ministers, and legislators, he insulted his independently inclined people; at all events, he did enough to cause the majority to sigh for Karageorgevic rule again. Indeed, Prince Peter Karageorgevic was quite justified in saying, as he did a year ago, "Why should I have agents to incite revolt and to work in the interests of my dynasty when King Alexander is performing this task better than any one else?"

Whether Prince Peter, now elected King by the Skuptshina, will be an improvement on his predecessor remains to be seen. In the eyes of Russia he will be; he has long been a vigorous Russophile; his marriage with Princess Zorka of Montenegro was arranged by the Czar, and their two sons have been trained at the Russian military academy. In the eyes of the rest of the world, however, despite the Prince's professed shock at the horrible deed just perpetrated, he will, if elected, occupy a blood-stained throne, gained through regicide, even though he be personally innocent. His first duty should be to insist on the condign punishment of Alexander's murderers. If King Peter does not do this spontaneously, the sovereigns of Europe ought to compel him to do so, if only as a means of self-preservation and the protection of legitimism in government. It is to be hoped that this reported statement from the Prince will be confirmed: "The nation must avenge the crime. It is imperative under a civilized constitution. A King who could overlook it or receive a crown at the hands of assassins would be their accomplice."

Will Servia be better off nationally and internationally under the new rule? Nationally, the land could hardly have been worse off than it was under the young autocrat whose stroke-of-state last April constitutes his most prominent claim to governmental remembrance. Internationally, the status of Servia cannot be greatly changed, although in the murder of the anti-Russian Premier, Zingar Markovic, the country has lost a notable statesman, one who stood in some such relation to Servia as did the anti-Russian Bulgarian Premier, Stambulov, likewise foully assassinated, to his own country. The new Prime Minister, the pro-Russian Jovan Avakumovic, was at the head of a Liberal Cabinet eleven years ago, and is said to be the best-known jurist in Servia. He will have a hard task to provide payment for the army and the civil servants. It is not so sure that he will steer a middle course between Russian and Austrian agents, each willing to aid Servia for the present in return for an option on the future. Meanwhile, a population of 2,500,000 supports an army of 30,000, which probably consumes more time and treasure in proportion to the popular resources than does the army of any other nation. Dissatisfaction with the lack of pay gave the final impulse to the long-planned overturn of the Obrenovic dynasty. Fortunately, Servia's standing with the Powers is not affected by this financial stringency. As with China and

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Turkey, the creditors of Servia have long since imposed a Commission, which, sitting at Belgrade, without reference to the Government, receives and administers for the benefit of these creditors the net earnings of the State railways, the customs duties, the liquor licenses, the tobacco, salt, and petroleum monopolies.

If such accounts only have been permitted to go out as suit those who now have control of the Servian government, the wholesale butchery of last week calls attention, as nothing else has done, to the thin veneer of civilization in the Balkans. Indeed, coming close upon the heels of the Kishenev horror and the work of the Bulgaro-Macedonian brigand revolutionists, we are reminded that all southeast Europe—Russia on one side and Turkey on the other side of the Balkans—is still in a primitive social condition. The last doubters among the Teutonic family of nations may now feel disposed to believe that the Slavs, while energetic and patriotic, are, as a division of the human family, excitable, easily blinded by bigotry or passion, and prone to violence.

As a member of the Slav group of nations, Servia has fallen to a still lower level than that established by the army in its campaign of 1885. Disastrous as that campaign was in its revelations of a lack of fiber, the Servian army has now indulged in something worse—conspiracy, treason, and murder, not only of men but of defenseless women. King Charles of Rumania, who has been an honorary colonel in the Servian army, immediately severed his connection with an organization which, he declared, "has given such horrible proof of the lack of military honor." Still more disheartening were the illumination of the capital the night after the murder, the hasty burial of the dead, the absence of any ecclesiastical dignitaries at that service, above all, the official proclamation of the death of Colonel Naumovic, who had grossly insulted the Queen, as "an officer who died on the field of honor for the fatherland!" It would seem as if the one heroic thing in the whole revolting tale was the instant shooting of Naumovic by the young King.

Finally, allowing for the fact that the despatches are revised by the now ruling party, the Servian people seem to be singularly unmoved by the manner of getting rid of a detested dynasty. Materially prosperous as the peasant farmers are in Servia, constituting seven eighths of the population, and ambitious as all Servians are to make their country great, there is little hope for a nation which views with apathetic indifference, if not with a silence which gives consent, so brutal a series of assassinations as this has been.

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Reading in the Home

The Department of Agriculture of Cornell University is doing practical and valuable work in endeavoring to aid farmers' families in the matter of reading; and Professor Bailey, who has not only wide knowledge of his subject but skill in popular presentation, has recently issued a little note in regard to home reading which is worth considering, not only by farmers' wives, but by wives and mothers in households of every kind. Home reading is one of the simplest and most easily worked means of education; but it is a means which is often neglected, because people do not give it thought and do not realize what can be done by a little thought. Professor Bailey, who has in mind the children of the farmer's household, emphasizes by illustration the importance of putting the best reading in their hands, and notes the fact that if a boy likes good things to look at and good things to read, it is because he has been accustomed to things of good quality on the walls and on the book-shelves of his own home. The training of the eye and the training of the mind ought to be part of the education of every home; not in a didactic fashion, nor in such a way as to tax the attention of the boy or girl, or to impose a fresh burden on father or mother, but by the much more effective way of having the best pictures on the walls and the best books on the shelves. This does not mean any additional outlay of money; it is possible to-day to secure reproductions of the best works of art in simple and excellent forms at a very moderate cost, and books were never so cheap in the whole history of literature.

The reading habit in a child ought to be formed early, and ought to be formed at home. It is not only the habit which educates, but it is also the habit which

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protects. The boy who has become interested in good books is much more likely to be at home in the evening than the boy who lacks that resource. The best way to keep a boy out of temptation and to carry him safely through the dangerous period of youth is to surround him with things at home that are more attractive to him than things he finds abroad. A wise mother discovered not long ago that her boys were absent every evening, and, upon investigation, she found that they were playing whist with the men in the stable. Instead of expostulating with them, she learned to play whist herself, and to play it well, though she disliked all kinds of games. When she had mastered the game, she quietly proposed to her sons one evening to play whist with her, and it followed, as a matter of course, without any consciousness on their part, that the scene of their amusement was transferred from the stable to the library.

It is a capital suggestion of Professor Bailey's to establish the habit of reading aloud in the family. This means a distribution of the work of reading, so far as there is any work involved. It means the unity of the family circle in a common interest and occupation, and it is a capital way of evoking the freshness of thought and suggestiveness in the different members of the family. Reading aloud ought to be a universal accomplishment; as a matter of fact, it is extraordinarily rare, not because it is difficult to learn, but because so few people have ever had any practi e. The habit of reading aloud in a family, once formed, trains every member to a certain excellence of expression, adds a new resource to the family life, and knits a new bond between the members of the family. When this habit has been established, it is very easy to carry out. The further suggestion of setting aside one evening in each week for family reading, if it is wisely selected with reference to other interests and engagements, is good. The evening is looked forward to after a time, and nothing of ordinary importance is allowed to interfere with it. Out of such informal readings groups of readers are often organized and neighborhoods interested, and the atmosphere of secluded communities is freshened and vivified.

These hints concern the mechanism of home education; it is assuming that only the best material for that education will be used. Good books, to put them on the lowest possible basis, are quite as interesting as inferior books. No boy need be relegated to cheap novels because he is fond of fiction; the libraries are full of stories of adventure and achievement told in the best possible way; and it is as easy to interest a boy by putting Stevenson in his hands as to give him some writer who has no sense of form, no excellence of style, no dignity of aim. It is never necessary to read trashy books for the sake of securing the interest of an untrained or immature mind. Nothing but the best ought ever to be read in a family. It costs no more than the worst, it is far more interesting, and it is the only kind of reading that conveys any moral uplifting, or opens the imagination.

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The Ethical Significance of Money

The institution of private property has been potent for moral development up to a certain point. It has wonderfully developed the economic virtues, industry, frugality, prudence. These, however, have been developed mainly on their self-regarding side, and the morality they have fostered has been merely "embryonic." Such is the character, as Professor Bowne has observed, of the current morality of our present industrial and economic order, which stands now at the parting of the ways, where a choice is urgent between moral advance or moral degeneration. The germinant idea of the moral advance now imperatively necessary is an ethical conception of money.

That money is power no one needs to be told. Every one assents to Carlyle's saying: "Whoever has sixpence is sovereign over all to the extent of that sixpence: commands cooks to feed him, philosophers to teach him, kings to mount guard over him to the extent of that sixpence." This, however, is a non-ethical conception. Mere consciousness of power is the spring of tyranny. It must be moralized into consciousness of power as a trust. This moral advance has already taken place in the political world. The most despotic rulers of civilized States regard their power as held, not for their

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personal aggrandizement, but for the welfare of their subjects, with which they identify the greatness of their thrones. This has not yet taken place in the economic world, though many cases of it already appear as morning stars heralding the day. The autocrats of finance and industry are concerned mostly with creating empires by the consolidation of economic principalities under their rule, and the power of the greatest fortunes is applied to the work of creating greater fortunes still. Ex-Mayor Hewitt said, two years ago, that a hundred millions ought to be applied at once to the reconstruction of wholesome homes in the disease-breeding slum-quarters of New York, for the permanent betterment of the public health, and the prevention of thousands of preventable deaths occurring annually. But neither the philanthropy of the scheme, nor the four or five per cent. return which he thought certain, has secured for it any serious consideration. The conception of money as economic power is thus far short of being moralized to the extent that the conception of political power has been by the consciousness of that power as a trust for the human welfare it can achieve.

In still another point of view the current estimate of money is thoroughly non-ethical, and also prolific of enormous immorality. A fundamental principle essential to social righteousness is generally forgotten—viz., that money is in its very design a measure of service given and received in equality of exchange.

"I will do as much for you some time." In this phrase we express the common consciousness that a service received must be balanced by an equal service given. But this simple exchange of equal services is far short of supplying all the needs of a highly specialized social system. Like primitive exchange by barter, it is mostly superseded by the use of the common medium of exchange called money. By this services are estimated on a scale of innumerable gradations from a cent upward, and thereby the inhabitants of all the continents are made reciprocally serviceable in a commonwealth of mutual interest. Now, the dollar I pay to the man who cleans my windows, the share of the five dollars I pay for my hat that goes to each producer of the utilities it embodies, is really an order for that amount of service to the bearer to balance the service that I have received. This is the ethical significance of every piece of money that passes from hand to hand. It has been strangely forgotten, and needs to be strenuously insisted on; for enormous iniquity springs from its forgetting.

The sentiment of honor still rules in the simple primitive exchange of service between man and man. Self-respect scorns to receive service *as service* without full requital. But when the time and toil and fatigue involved in service are screened from observation and conscience by the dollar held close to the eye, the point of honor is lost out of mind; the full requital is not thought of. The man who would despise himself did he not balance every good turn done him with a good turn equivalent, hugs himself for the largest income from the smallest output. If he can make the output fictitious instead of real by watered stock, the returns from which, instead of being the earnings of labor crystallized in capital, are the tribute of unrequited human sweat, he congratulates himself the more.

According to a carefully written article in the New York "Times," this non-ethical conception of money has already generated monstrous enormities. The syndicate that launched the Steel Trust with the hundred millions of "water" said to have been added by it to the aggregate of capital and water in all its component corporations is stated to have received forty million dollars for that service. It must be a hardy and daring imagination that can dream of any service rendered to the world by that operation which is even faintly comparable with the amount of service which the holders of such a sum are now empowered to demand of the world in the form of labor and the innumerable products of labor.

The public mind seems to be too dazed by such monstrosities for a proper estimate of them. And yet it may well be doubted whether the reddest socialist is doing so much to undermine respect for property rights as the Napoleons of finance who lay society under contribution to great fortunes that lack the solid basis of proportionate services rendered to the community—advancing the price of oil twenty per cent. in a time of fuel

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famine, after dividing profits to the amount of forty-five per cent. for the year.

Yet the fundamental principle of social justice so flagrantly repudiated continues to be appealed to in a small way by people who dispute what they deem exorbitant bills for services rendered. It is constantly affirmed in the courts where such disputes are adjudicated. Money is held to be the measure of actual service, and the legal claim for it is limited to the amount of the service it requites. In this, as in other points, the ethical standard of the law is in advance of the ethics of the business world, which is prone to look at "what the market will bear" in the line of extortion, rather than at the cost of the service rendered, as the measure of demand. This is precisely what the New Testament brands as "covetousness," along with vices which modern society punishes as crimes. And, indeed, the enormous infractions of ethical principle committed by the autocrats of the market in exacting a tribute from the community exceeding any imposed by ancient conquerors on subject provinces are, in their way, as demoralizing to the public conscience of right and wrong as the most lascivious theatrical shows could be. These the law suppresses, but in the absence of any legal check upon those it is time that the churches and their teachers were awake to the moral crisis that threatens the stability of the commonwealth, while it tests the moral quality of current religion.

The ethical significance of money, as the intended medium and measure of that fair exchange of service with service which makes society a mutual-benefit association, is one of the most important and most neglected subjects in the religious teaching of to-day. Neglect of it tends to make society an arena of mutual spoliation, in which democracy and Christianity perish together. The only hope that our democracy will not take the down-grade track, in which all earlier attempts at popular government have ended ingloriously, is in the conservative influence of Christianity. This, however, is but salt that has lost its savor, powerless to avert corruption, if it fail to insist on social righteousness, and to couple with its zeal for creeds and rites an equal zeal for what is just and equal between man and man.

The Spectator

The recent terrible tragedy of the young King of Servia and his household brought back to the Spectator vivid memories of his Majesty just before he by a *coup d'état* assumed the throne. He was then just reaching manhood, an uncouth, ill-visaged, unattractive fellow with a black beard just beginning to cover his chin, and, as he sat at the luncheon-table in the dining-car, next to the Spectator's table, he was anything but royal in appearance. He wore a badly fitting brown plaid suit and a shabby hat, and talked rather sullenly with Mr. Ristich, who was then acting as Regent. At the Zurich station, two or three hours later, as we all alighted together, a rather handsome, well-dressed man with brown hair and mustache, apparently forty-five years of age, came forward, and he and the young Alexander embraced affectionately. This latter was his father, the ex-King Milan, exiled from his country and divorced from his wife Natalie. It was perhaps at this meeting that Milan persuaded his son to carry out the plan he had devised for him to declare himself of age and seize the reins of government.

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It was rather an odd coincidence, the Spectator's meeting with these two noted personages at this time, for he had just completed a remarkably picturesque and very unusual trip through the Balkan States, and he had been in Belgrade just five days before the riots broke out resulting in the violent expulsion of Queen Natalie from the city and from Servia. The trip was from Constantinople to Buda-Pesth by the way of the river Danube, and it occupied five extraordinarily interesting days. It is a pleasant way of coming up into central Europe, by the way, and one experiences a gradual transition from the Oriental to the Occidental, from Turkish to Teutonic manners and peoples. One takes a steamer from Constantinople across the Black Sea to Varna, thence by railway a few hours to Rustczuk, in Bulgaria, and there he boards the comfortable little paddle-wheel river steamer, and for four or five days voyages up the brown waters of the "beautiful blue Danube," with the villages, fields, and meadows of Bulgaria, Rumania,

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Servia, and Hungary affording a charming and constantly changing panorama on each side.

❀

The palace at Belgrade, where last week's tragedy took place, the Spectator saw just as evening was coming on. As he went down the gang-plank from the boat and suffered his passport to be rigorously scrutinized, the chief of police addressed him in English, saying he had once lived in America. He was very friendly, and ordered a special policeman to show the Spectator about the city. It is a clear, compactly built, German-like town, with cobblestone-paved streets, and a public square, at one side of which stands the massive stone palace whose courtyard so recently was filled with the blood-mad rabble of assassins. Near by are a cathedral, a theater, several attractive shops and busy little cafés; and the pleasant air of peacefulness and comfort was in sharp contrast to the tumultuous times of a few days later when the Queen was forced to fly.

❀

There are few large towns on the Danube trip, though one has several opportunities to go ashore at quaint villages, and the Spectator remembers with special pleasure an hour spent in the late afternoon at Mohacs, an almost ideally pastoral village with grass-grown streets, trim peasants' cottages, a pretty little church, a common, and bright little flower gardens. It was on this side of the Carpathian Hills. The palms and minarets of the East had disappeared, the Oriental costumes had given place to equally picturesque but more European ones, and the brilliant sunlight caused the colors to glisten and the dark trees to stand out against the sunset sky. Great boat-loads of home-coming farmers were being ferried across the river, and stalwart, tanned, light-haired women were coming down to their cottage gates to meet them, and their toil-marked faces grew tender as the children trooped about them. It was an idyllic picture, and seemed to bestow a new and unexpected grace upon one's idea of these semi-savage, half-Oriental countries. And when one shudders at the outrages at the capitals, of murdered rulers, corrupt ministers, and plotting officers of state, a little memory of the innocent peace and pastoral simplicity of this village, shining aureoled in the sunset light, seems to soften the scene and leaven it with a savor of good.

❀

Another charming little incident on this peaceful Danube trip was during an evening ashore in a tiny Servian village. A throng of peasants were clustered about a travel-stained circus tent where an exhibition was just commencing. Paying about seven cents each for the best seats, we saw a modest little performance enacted evidently by one family only. The ring-master and chief acrobat was the father, his wife and daughter rode the one horse in the usual "daring feats," his two boys did some acrobatics, juggling, and trapeze acts, and his daughter danced with pretty grace and ingenuousness. It was all so simply and conscientiously done, the audience being most enthusiastic, that it was quite touching, and the Spectator felt a sudden sympathy for this hard-working family who journeyed from village to village earning their arduous living, and the little tent, with its flaring oil lamps and sawdust ring and the circle of eager spectators, formed a picture not soon to be forgotten.

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After all, it is among people of this class that we find the truest phases of human nature. They know not of politics and statecraft, of intrigues and savage plotting. And the tragedy of Belgrade is perhaps but little understood and appreciated in these little Servian villages along the river Danube. The people till their fields and sell their milk and guard their flocks and pay their taxes, and one king in Belgrade is, to them, very like another. The river boats pass up and down before them, laden with foreign passengers and perhaps a group of soldiers, and carry their wool and grain and embroidered cotton to distant markets, but the river is always the same, the fields are sown and reaped, and so life passes. And the Spectator, as he sees, in memory, the figure of the boy king hastening down the station platform at Zurich to greet his exiled father, thinks of the far-reaching consequences of that meeting, and the trip up the Danube takes on a new interest to him.

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Reclaiming a Commonwealth

By Cheesman A. Herrick

NORTH CAROLINA has been the very citadel of illiteracy and educational inefficiency; in a recent scientific study of education she was placed with the lowest expenditure per capita for schools, and the lowest productive power per capita. The Governor of the State has been proclaiming to his people, from the tide-water regions to the mountain fastnesses, that theirs is the poorest State in the Union in dollars and cents, and the most illiterate save one.

Knowledge of the North State's part in the Civil War is necessary to understand her subsequent educational history. Attendance upon a recent State reunion of Confederate Veterans at Greensboro' taught a little of how great had been her sacrifice, how complete her subjugation. Broken and aged men, the shadow of their former selves and of the armies in which they served, wore in their hats a "brag feather" of the "Tar Heels Brigade" which recited: "First at Bethel, Foremost at Gettysburg, Furthest at Chickamauga, and Last at Appomattox." North Carolina, it further said, furnished largely in excess of her proportion of the Confederate army; from a war population of 141,000 she sent to the field 127,000, and of these 40,000 were lost. But the loss of men was not all; infinitely greater were the wasted wealth and crushed spirits of a people proud and brave. When the war was over, the special fund for the support of schools was gone, and the school-houses were deserted. The work of Calvin Wiley, former State Superintendent of Schools, closed with Sherman's occupation of Raleigh. To Sherman war meant hell; to North Carolina it meant illiteracy.

When the war closed, the University of North Carolina was without occupation. School organization and school support had disappeared. Hopeless indeed was the outlook; material needs were considered first. It was ten years before the State University reopened her doors, but at once she began to work mightily for the educational renaissance of the State. In the first three classes were the present Governor, Charles B. Aycock, on fire with educational enthusiasm; the present progressive State Superintendent of Public Instruction, James Y. Joyner; and the recent President of the University, Edwin A. Alderman, whose addresses always present education as the supremest need of a democracy. To these should be added the not less important work of another alumnus, Charles D. McIver, in the establishment of industrial training and as Secretary of the Southern Education Board. University of North Carolina men were leaders in the summer institute movement, and have assumed the superintendencies in one-half of the graded schools of the State. One-fifth of the present county superintendents of schools are also from the State University. Any institution of the world might well be proud of the work of the younger as well as the older alumni of the University of North Carolina. Let it be said to her credit that with her University North Carolina is working out her own educational salvation.

The educational condition from which this State has arisen is shown by the testimony of the Hon. John C. Scarborough, who became State Superintendent of Schools in 1877. There were then no institution for the training of teachers, no provisions for teachers' institutes, and the Legislature, lest the Board of Education should exercise its general powers, had by law prohibited it from securing a clerk for the State Superintendent, or allowing him any money for traveling expenses.

Down to 1900 the progress was slight. A new qualification for electors was to be fixed in that year, and the man for the occasion was the standard-bearer of the majority party, Charles B. Aycock. "Intelligence" was the watchword of the campaign; a provision before the people was that no one, white or black, coming of age after 1908, should be allowed to vote unless he could read and write. "Adopt this provision," said Aycock, "and if I am elected Governor, it will be my chief aim to give every child in North Carolina

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the opportunities for an education." The wisdom of universal education was most convincingly presented, and partisan issues were largely ignored. "If you do not want more attention to education," said the frank and fearless candidate, "don't vote for me." Aycock himself made one hundred and eight speeches in that campaign, and his work was supplemented by others who took the keynote from their leader. The pledges of the candidate were widely printed in the press, but he was not content with this, and had his platform struck off in circulars and then distributed. As might have been expected, Aycock was chosen by a handsome majority, and, best of all, he was as good as his word. "Redeeming the pledges," he terms his action. In season and out he is preaching the gospel of a new educational dispensation. The State levy for educational purposes has been largely increased, and the Governor has worked directly and indirectly for additional local taxation. Marked progress has been made in the following directions: improvement in the character of the schools, the introduction of the graded school system into smaller cities and villages, and the subdivision of larger districts so that the schools will be within reach of all.

Governor Aycock loses no opportunity to speak to his people on his chosen theme, and he is most skillful in suiting his message to special occasions. One of his speeches at the county seat of a remote mountain county may be regarded as typical. Waynesville recently unveiled a memorial tablet to the founder of the town. Announcements of this had the statement that the Governor would be present and deliver an address. It was to the whole region a day of unusual interest. The inhabitants for many miles thronged the streets. As the gathering was typical of the "mountain whites," one might well be curious to see how the educational Governor would be received.

The exercises were held in the courthouse, where all available space was early occupied. One anxious visitor who happened to be a little late spent fifteen minutes in trying to get within hearing distance, and failed. The address and its effect were nothing less than wonderful. From first to last, the words were of a man who knew his subject and believed in it, who knew his auditors and believed in them. The response showed that the hearers were convinced.

The speaker began by reference to his former appearance on that platform, and to the promise then made, that if he were elected there would be furnished the best possible education for every boy and girl in North Carolina. "My election," he continued, "made my pledge that of the people of the State, and we became colaborers in a great work." With true art, the belief was expressed that every man in the assemblage had voted for him, or if there was one who did not, he was already sorry for it. "I come to you, then," he said, "to give an account of my stewardship, and to ask that you keep faith with me by doing your part in this stupendous work."

The occasion was made to teach its lesson; the founder of Waynesville had been a Revolutionary soldier, and the part of North Carolina in the Revolution, from the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence to the campaigns of Greene, had a brilliant setting. Local pride was appealed to; it was west North Carolina that saved the "State of Franklin" to the Union, and Waynesville played an important part in that work. The marksmanship of Carolina riflemen received its meed of praise for service in the Second War with Great Britain, the Mexican War, and the Civil War. In courage and heroic endeavor the Governor declared his people to be second to none; "indeed," he asserted, "North Carolinians are the best people in the world when they are doing the things they have been trained to do and know how to do." The greatest shame to a North Carolinian was to be a coward, and the greatest disgrace to turn his back.

North Carolina was then boldly declared to be the poorest State in the Union, and the most illiterate save one. "God bless South Carolina!" said the speaker; "she has got us into a good deal of trouble, but she saves us the ignominy of being the most illiterate of States." Next the question was asked, "Why are you poor? Is it because you are lazy? Yes, you are lazy. Is it because you are thriftless? Yes, you are thriftless. Is it because you are lawless? Yes, you are lawless; but you are neither

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more lazy nor more lawless than your neighbors. North Carolina is poor because she is illiterate. Massachusetts is rich, so rich that it sounds like a dream; but Massachusetts has furnished splendid educational opportunities. The trouble with North Carolina has been that we have too long depended upon the education of the few. In our widely separated communities it has been and is difficult to bring education within the reach of all; but the future welfare of the State depends upon this being done."

The speaker devoted himself to the proposition that the strength of a State can be adequately measured by the average intelligence of its people, dwelling on this as it affects both political and industrial life. His illustrations were most pointed and convincing. "When you buy manufactured articles," said he, "you buy them from Massachusetts, and you pay for labor worth four dollars a day; but you pay in the products of your own labor, which is worth fifty cents a day. Now, what does this mean? Why, that you must give eight days of your labor for one day of that of the men in Massachusetts. This is because Massachusetts has taught her people to work, and North Carolina has not." "Not that I urge a mere increase in wages," he continued; "doubling the wages of the people of North Carolina would not double our wealth; what we need is an increase in the efficiency of our workers. We need the application of intelligence to our work. In the Patent Office at Washington there is one patent for every 900 citizens in the United States at large, but there is but one for every 24,000 in North Carolina." Education was found to be *knowing* and *doing* something, and the man who knows and does the things that the times demand was declared to *be* something.

After disposing of universal education as a general proposition and showing the folly and shortsightedness of educating the few, the Governor came to the education of negroes. The one criticism urged against Charles B. Aycock is that he favors taxing white people to educate the blacks; but he declares that his plea for universal education in 1900 meant the education of blacks, and, further, that when he said intelligence should rule, he did not mean to exclude the intelligent black man. Haywood County, in which the Governor was speaking, has about six hundred negroes in a total population of over sixteen thousand, and the sentiment was strong against the white support of black schools. The discussion of the matter before that audience was like handling fire over a powder magazine.

After the orator was thoroughly *en rapport* with his audience, and his sentiments had been again and again applauded, he concluded a brilliant period with the statement, "Yes, and I believe in the education of niggers!" This was uttered with measured deliberation and intense feeling. The audience was awed. The speaker paused for the effect of what he had said, and, noting disapproval, he added: "I perceive that I have created a gulf between myself and my audience; but, my fellow-citizens, you believe in the education of niggers!" The mountaineer admires courage, and probably nothing but the Governor's fearlessness saved him from being hissed.

One could but admire the skill with which Governor Aycock had captured the strongholds of ignorance and illiteracy; but when he rode full tilt at the fortifications of race prejudice, the seeming self-interest of his audience, and the traditions of over two hundred years, it was too much; one feared for the outcome. But the speaker was equal to the task. He began: "You believe in the education of a mule; he isn't worth much until you break him; he must be educated to work; he will bring no return and be a source of expense until he is trained. You take your setter pup or your foxhound and school him; he would do more harm than good until he is educated. Now," added the Governor, "I think more of a nigger than I do of a mule or a dog, and the reasons for educating a mule or a dog hold to a greater degree for educating a nigger. Intelligence and trained skill of our black men are necessary," he continued, "for the material welfare and political security of our State." This was supplemented by a discussion of true and false education, illumining and convincing. A powerful plea was entered for education of hand and mind, of white and black. The education that North Carolina needs, it was said, is that which shall train

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men to keep contracts inviolate, and which shall lead them into, not away from, work.

The rest of the speech was given to removing the prejudice against local taxation for schools, and to inducing the people to make use of the educational facilities offered. The conclusion was reached, and presented with power, that "the best money spent by any community is that spent for schools," and those from the local communities were urged to go home, call a meeting, and petition the proper officials for authority to place an extra levy for school purposes. The Governor said that the compelling power of public opinion must get and keep the children in school, that the State had no compulsory education law, and could not enforce one if it did have it. A burden of responsibility was laid upon teachers to get children to school; the whole community was commissioned a vigilance committee to see that the youth did not grow up in ignorance. Withering was the arraignment of the man who whittles a white pine stick at the crossroads while his wife and children are making a living for themselves and him. "No man who respects himself," it was said, "ought to speak with such a one; tell him to go to work; to get his wife into the home and his children into the school, and then to come back and you will talk with him." The speaker hoped that he should yet see the men of North Carolina at work, the women in the homes, and the children in the schools. The conclusion of this appeal was: "Oh, I wish there wasn't a white pine stick in the universe; we have spent fifty thousand years in North Carolina whittling white pine sticks!" The speaker also paid his respects to the man who keeps his children from school because he says it will injure them to walk a mile or two to attend, but who compels them to carry corn for three miles to mill.

The conclusion was a call for self-sacrifice and labor. "This is our business," said the Governor; "education that we do not work for will do us little good. I would not accept schools as a free gift from a millionaire; I want the people of North Carolina to pay the price of education and then they will appreciate what it means." While the call was to a difficult task, the speaker said he knew his people, and felt sure that they would not be found wanting. He had confidence in the unmixed and uncontaminated white race of North Carolina. As Governor he bade his hearers join him in placing a school within the reach of every child of the State.

The logic of the speech was convincing, the earnestness of the speaker was irresistible, the response of the audience was spontaneous. Charles B. Aycock and those he modestly represents are rehabilitating a State; they are building the broad foundations of universal education for the superstructure of North Carolina's political and economic future. Progress in recent years has been marked; already North Carolina can give a new account of herself. The per capita expenditure on education increased from sixteen cents in 1870 to fifty-one cents in 1900, while the average earning power of the people more than doubled in the decade ending 1900; but this is only the beginning. North Carolina's achievement is a light to lighten other States, as well as her own glory.

The Hour and the Man

By Priscilla Leonard

No man can choose what coming hours may bring
To him of need, of joy, of suffering;
But what his soul shall bring unto each hour
To meet its challenge—this is in his power.

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THE FOREST[1]

BY STEWART EDWARD WHITE

Author of "The Blazed Trail," "Conjuror's House," etc.

XIV.—On Walking Through the Woods

WE found ourselves peering through the thicket at a little reed and grass grown body of water a few acres in extent. A short detour to the right led us to an outlet—a brook of a width and dash that convinced us that the little pond was only a stopping-place in the stream, and not a headwaters as we had at first imagined. Then a nearer approach led us past pointed tree-stumps exquisitely chiseled with the marks of teeth, so we knew that we looked, not on a natural pond, but on the work of beavers.

I examined the dam more closely. It was a marvel of engineering skill in the accuracy with which the big trees had been felled exactly along the most effective lines, the efficiency of the filling in, and the just estimate of the waste water to be allowed. We named the place obviously Beaver Pond, resumed our packs, and pushed on.

Now I must be permitted to celebrate by a little the pluck of Dick. He was quite unused to the tump-line; comparatively inexperienced in woods-walking; and weighed but one hundred and thirty-five pounds. Yet not once in the course of that trip did he bewail his fate. Towards the close of this first afternoon I dropped behind to see how he was making it. The boy had his head down, his lips shut tight together, his legs well straddled apart. As I watched he stumbled badly over the merest twig.

"Dick," said I, "are you tired?"

"Yes," he confessed, frankly.

"Can you make it another half-hour?"

"I guess so; I'll try."

At the end of the half-hour we dropped our packs. Dick had manifested no impatience—not once had he even asked how nearly time was up—but now he breathed a deep sigh of relief.

"I thought you were never going to stop," said he, simply.

From Dick those words meant a great deal. For woods-walking differs as widely from ordinary walking as trap shooting from field shooting. A good pedestrian may tire very quickly in the forest. No two successive steps are of the same length; no two successive steps fall on the same quality of footing; no two successive steps are on the same level. Those three are the major elements of fatigue. Add further the facts that your way is continually obstructed both by real difficulties—such as trees, trunks, and rocks—and lesser annoyances, such as branches, bushes, and even spider-webs. These things all combine against endurance. The inexperienced does not know how to meet them with a minimum of effort. The tenderfoot is in a constant state of muscular and mental rigidity against a fall or a stumble or a cut across the face from some one of the infinitely numerous woods scourges. This rigidity speedily exhausts the vital force.

So much for the philosophy of it. Its practical side might be infinitely extended. Woodsmen are tough and enduring and in good condition; but no more so than the average college athlete. Time and again I have seen men of the latter class walked to a standstill. I mean exactly that. They knew and were justly proud of their physical condition, and they hated to acknowledge, even to themselves, that the rest of us were more enduring. As a consequence, they played on their nerve, beyond their physical powers. When the collapse came, it was complete. I remember very well a crew of men turning out from a lumber camp on the Sturgeon River to bring in on a litter a young fellow who had given out while attempting to follow Bethel Bristol through a hard day. Bristol said he dropped finally as though he had been struck on the head. The woodsman had thereupon built him a little fire, made him as comfortable as

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possible with both coats, and hiked for assistance. I once went into the woods with a prominent college athlete. We walked rather hard over a rough country until noon. Then the athlete lay on his back for the rest of the day, while I finished alone the business we had come on.

Now, these instances do not imply that Bristol, and certainly not myself, were any stronger physically, or possessed more nervous force, than the men we had tired out. Either of them on a road could have trailed us, step for step, and as long as we pleased. But we knew the game.

It comes at the last to be entirely a matter of experience. Any man can walk in the woods all day at some gait. But his speed will depend on his skill. It is exactly like making your way through heavy, dry sand. As long as you restrain yourself to a certain leisurely plodding, you get along without extraordinary effort, while even a slight increase of speed drags fiercely at your feet. So it is with the woods. As long as you walk slowly enough so that you can pick your footing, and lift aside easily the branches that menace your face, you will expend little nervous energy. But the slightest pressing, the slightest inclination to go beyond what may be called your physical foresight, lands you immediately in difficulties. You stumble, you break through the brush, you shut your eyes to avoid sharp switchings. The reservoir of your energy is open full cock. In about an hour you feel very, very tired.

This principle holds rigidly true of every one, from the softest tenderfoot to the expertest forest runner. For each there exists a normal rate of travel, beyond which are penalties. Only, the forest runner, by long use, has raised the exponent of his powers. Perhaps as a working hypothesis the following might be recommended: *One good step is worth six stumbling steps; go only fast enough to assure that good one.*

You will learn besides a number of things practically which memory cannot summon to order for instance here. "Brush slanted across your path is easier lifted over your head and dropped behind you than pushed aside," will do as an example.

A good woods walker progresses without apparent hurry. I have followed the disappearing back of Tawabinisáy when, as my companion elegantly expressed it, "if you stopped to spit you got lost." Tawabinisáy wandered through the forest, his hands in his pockets, humming a little Indian hymn. And we were breaking madly along behind him with the crashing of many timbers.

Of your discoveries probably one of the most impressive will be that in the bright lexicon of woodcraft the word "mile" has been entirely left out. To count by miles is a useless and ornamental elegance of civilization. Some of us once worked hard all one day only to camp three miles down-stream from our resting-place of the night before. And the following day we ran nearly sixty with the current. The space of measured country known as a mile may hold you five minutes or five hours from your destination. The Indian counts by time; and after a little you will follow his example. "Four miles to Kettle Portage" means nothing. "Two hours to Kettle Portage" does. Only, when an Indian tells you two hours, you would do well to count it as four.

Well, our trip practically amounted to seven days to nowhere; or perhaps seven days to everywhere would be more accurate. It was all in the high hills until the last day and a half, and generally in the hardwood forests. Twice we intersected and followed for short distances Indian trails, neither of which apparently had been traveled since the original party that had made them. They led across country for greater or lesser distances in the direction we wished to travel, and then turned aside. Three times we blundered on little meadows of moose-grass. Invariably these were tramped muddy like a cattle-yard, where the great animals had stood as lately as the night before. Caribou were not uncommon. There were a few deer, but not many, for the most of the deer country lies to the south of this our district. Partridges, as we had anticipated, lacked in such high country.

In the course of the five days and a half we were in the hills we discovered six lakes of various sizes. The smallest was a mere pond. The largest would measure some three or four miles in diameter. We came upon that very late one

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afternoon. A brook of some size crossed our way, so, as was our habit, we promptly turned up-stream to discover its source. In the high country the headwaters are never more than a few miles distant; and at the same time the magnitude of this indicated a lake rather than a spring as the supply. The lake might be Kawágama.

Our packs had grown to be very heavy, for they had already the weight of nine hours piled on top. And the stream was exceedingly difficult to follow. It flowed in one of those aggravating little ravines whose banks are too high and steep and uneven for good footing, and whose beds are choked with a too abundant growth. In addition, there had fallen many trees over which one had to climb. We kept at it for perhaps an hour. The brook continued of the same size, and the country of the same character. Dick for the first time suggested that it might be well to camp.

"We've got good water here," he argued quite justly, "and we can push on to-morrow just as well as to-night."

We balanced our packs against a prostrate tree-trunk. Billy contributed his indirect share to the argument.

"I lak' to have the job mak' heem this countree all over," he sighed. "I mak' heem more level."

"All right," I agreed; "you fellows sit here and rest a minute, and I'll take a whirl a little ways ahead."

I slipped my tump-line, and started on light. After carrying a heavy pack so long, I seemed to tread on air. The thicket, before so formidable, amounted to nothing at all. Perhaps the consciousness that the day's work was in reality over lent a little factitious energy to my tired legs. At any rate, the projected two hundred feet of my investigations stretched to a good quarter-mile. At the end of that space I debouched on a widening of the ravine. The hardwood ran off into cedars. I pushed through the stiff rods and yielding fans of the latter, and all at once found myself leaning out over the waters of the lake.

It was almost an exact oval, and lay in a cup of hills. Three wooded islands, swimming like ducks in the placid evening waters, added a touch of diversity. A huge white rock balanced the composition to the left, and a single white sea-gull, like a snowflake against pines, brooded on its top.

I looked abroad to where the perfect reflection of the hills confused the shore line. I looked down through five feet of crystal water to where pebbles shimmered in refraction. I noted the low rocks jutting from the wood's shelter whereon one might stand to cast a fly. Then I turned and yelled and yelled and yelled again at the forest.

Billy came through the brush, crashing in his haste. He looked long and comprehendingly. Without further speech, we turned back to where Dick was guarding the packs.

That youth we found profoundly indifferent.

"Kawágama," we cried, "a quarter-mile ahead."

He turned on us a lackluster eye.

"You going to camp here?" he inquired, dully.

"Course not! We'll go on and camp at the lake.

"All right," he replied.

We resumed our packs, a little stiffly and reluctantly, for we had tasted of woods travel without them. At the lake we rested.

"Going to camp here?" inquired Dick.

We looked about, but noted that the ground under the cedars was hummocky, and that the hardwood grew on a slope. Besides, we wanted to camp as near the shore as possible. Probably a trifle farther along there would be a point of high land and delightful little paper-birches.

"No," we answered, cheerfully, "this isn't much good. Suppose we push along a ways and find something better."

"All right," Dick replied.

We walked perhaps a half-mile more to the westward before we discovered what we wanted, stopping from time to time to discuss the merits of this or that place. Billy and I were feeling pretty good. After such a week, Kawágama was a tonic. Finally we agreed.

"This'll do," said we.

"Thank God!" said Dick, unexpectedly; and dropped his pack to the ground with a thud, and sat on it.

I looked at him closely. Then I undid my own pack.

"Billy," said I, "start in on grub. Never mind the tent just now."

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"A' right," grinned Billy. He had been making his own observations.

"Dick," said I, "let's go down and sit on the rock over the water. We might fish a little."

"All right," Dick replied.

He stumbled dully after me to the shore.

"Dick," I continued, "you're a kid, and you have high principles, and your mother wouldn't like it, but I'm going to prescribe for you, and I'm going to insist on your following the prescription. This flask does not contain fly dope; that's in the other flask. It contains whisky. I have had it in my pack since we started, and it has not been opened. I don't believe in whisky in the woods, not because I am temperance, but because a man can't travel on it. But here is where you break your heaven-born principles. Drink."

Dick hesitated, then he drank. By the time grub was ready his vitality had come to normal, and so he was able to digest his food and get some good out of it. Otherwise he could not have done so. Thus he furnished an admirable example of the only real use for whisky in woods travel. Also it was the nearest Dick ever came to being completely played out.

That evening was delightful. We sat on the rock and watched the long north-country twilight steal up like a gray cloud from the east. Two loons called to each other, now in the shrill maniac laughter, now with the long, mournful cry. It needed just that one touch to finish the picture. We were looking, had we but known it, on a lake no white man had ever visited before. Clement alone had seen Kawágama, so in our ignorance we attained much the same mental attitude. For I may as well let you into the secret; this was not the fabled lake after all. We found that out later from Tawabinisáy. But it was beautiful enough, and wild enough, and strange enough in its splendid wilderness isolation to fill the heart of the explorer with a great content.

Having thus, as we thought, attained the primary object of our explorations, we determined on trying now for the second—that is, the investigation of the upper reaches of the River. Trout we had not accomplished at this lake, but the existence of fish of some sort was attested by the presence of the two loons and the gull, so we laid our non-success to fisherman's luck. After two false starts we managed to strike into a good country near enough our direction. The travel was much the same as before. The second day, however, we came to a surveyor's base-line cut through the woods. Then we followed that as a matter of convenience. The base-line, cut the fall before, was the only evidence of man we saw in the high country. It meant nothing in itself, but was intended as a starting-point for the township surveys, whenever the country should become civilized enough to warrant them. That condition of affairs might not occur for years to come. Therefore the line was cut out clear for a width of twenty feet.

We continued along it as along a trail until we discovered our last lake—a body of water possessing many radiating arms. This was the nearest we came to the real Kawágama. If we had skirted the lake, mounted the ridge, followed a creek bed, mounted another ridge, and descended a slope, we should have made our discovery. Later we did just that, under the guidance of Tawabinisáy himself. Floating in the birch canoe we carried with us, we looked back at the very spot on which we stood this morning.

But we turned sharp to the left, and so missed our chance. However, we were in a happy frame of mind, for we imagined we had really made the desired discovery.

Nothing of moment happened until we reached the valley of the River. Then we found we were treed. We had been traveling all the time among hills and valleys, to be sure, but on a high elevation. Even the bottom-lands, in which lay the lakes, were several hundred feet above Superior. Now we emerged from the forest to find ourselves on bold mountains at least seven or eight hundred feet above the main valley. And in the main valley we could make out the River.

It was rather dizzy work. Three or four times we ventured over the rounded crest of the hill, only to return after forty or fifty feet because the slope had become too abrupt. This grew to be monotonous and aggravating. It looked as though we might have to parallel the River's course, like scouts watching an army, on the top of the hill. Finally a little ravine gave

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us hope. We scrambled down it; ended in a very steep slant, and finished at a sheer tangle of cedar-roots. The latter we attempted. Billy went on ahead. I let the packs down to him by means of a tump-line. He balanced them on roots until I had climbed below him. And so on. It was exactly like letting a bucket down a well. If one of the packs had slipped off the cedar-roots, it would have dropped like a plummet to the valley, and landed on Heaven knows what. The same might be said of ourselves. We did this because we were angry all through.

Then we came to the end of the cedar roots. Right and left offered nothing; below was a sheer, bare drop. Absolutely nothing remained but to climb back, heavy packs and all, to the top of the mountain. False hopes had wasted a good half day and innumerable foot-pounds. Billy and I saw red. We bowed our heads and snaked those packs to the top of the mountain at a gait that ordinarily would have tired us out in fifty feet. Dick did not attempt to keep up. When we reached the top we sat down to wait for him. After a while he appeared, climbing leisurely. He gazed on us from behind the mask of his Indian imperturbability. Then he grinned. That did us good, for we all three laughed aloud, and buckled down to business in a better frame of mind.

That day we discovered a most beautiful waterfall. A stream about twenty feet in width, and with a good volume of water, dropped some three hundred feet or more into the River. It was across the valley from us, so we had a good view of its beauties. Our estimates of its height were carefully made on the basis of some standing pine that grew near its foot.

And then we entered a steep little ravine, and descended it with misgivings to a cañon, and walked easily down the cañon to a slope that took us by barely sensible gradations to a wooded plain. At six o'clock we stood on the banks of the River, and the hills were behind us.

Of our downstream travel there is little really to be said. We established a number of facts—that the River dashes most scenically from rapid to rapid, so that the stagnant-pool theory is henceforth untenable; that the hills get higher and wilder the farther you penetrate to the interior, and their cliffs and rock-precipices bolder and more naked; that there are trout in the upper reaches, but not so large as in the lower pools; and, above all, that travel is not a joy forever.

For we could not ford the River above the Falls—it is too deep and swift. As a consequence, we had often to climb, often to break through the narrowest thicket strips, and once to feel our way cautiously along a sunken ledge under a sheer rock cliff. That was Billy's idea. We came to the sheer rock cliff after a pretty hard scramble, and we were most loth to do the necessary climbing. Billy suggested that we might be able to wade. As the pool below the cliff was black water and of indeterminate depth, we scouted the idea. Billy, however, poked around with a stick, and, as I have said, discovered a little ledge about a foot and a half wide and about two feet and a half below the surface. This was spectacular, but we did it. A slip meant a swim and the loss of the pack. We did not happen to slip. Shortly after we came to the Big Falls, and so, after further painful experiment, descended joyfully into known country.

The freshet had gone down, the weather had warmed, the sun shone, we caught trout for lunch below the Big Falls; everything was lovely. By three o'clock, after thrice wading the stream, we regained our canoe—now at least forty feet from the water. We paddled across. Deuce followed easily, where a week before he had been sucked down and nearly drowned. We opened the *cache* and changed our very travel-stained garments. We cooked ourselves a luxurious meal. We built a friendship-fire. And at last we stretched our tired bodies full length on balsam a foot thick, and gazed drowsily at the canvas-blurred moon before sinking to a dreamless sleep.

[TO BE CONTINUED]

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The New American Navy: Schley's Movement to Santiago[1]

By John D. Long

Secretary of the Navy from 1897 to 1902

WHILE the information received in Washington concerning Cervera's presence in Santiago was not absolutely trustworthy, it was sufficiently reliable to justify the taking of risk, and it was determined to order Schley to Santiago. There were some disposed to criticise this decision, but a choice had to be made between Cienfuegos and Santiago, and, regrettable as would have been the entrance of the Spanish ships into the former port, it was believed that Schley would be able to move swiftly and engage the enemy's fleet if it tried to make Cienfuegos from Santiago, or to blockade it in the latter harbor in case of its failure to escape from it before our ships arrived. Rear-Admiral Sampson was therefore informed that the report of Cervera's arrival at Santiago "might very well be correct," and he was strongly advised "to send word immediately by the Iowa to Schley to proceed at once off Santiago de Cuba with his whole command, leaving one small vessel off Cienfuegos." Sampson received this message early in the morning of May 20, and at once prepared instructions to Schley. Sampson also sent by the Iowa a memorandum from Commander McCalla, describing a good landing-place for troops at Savanilla Point, a short distance from Cienfuegos. This memorandum stated that the Cubans had perfect knowledge of what was going on inside the city, and gave information of the Spanish fortifications defending the place.

These despatches were delivered to Commodore Schley immediately after the arrival of the Iowa and Dupont. Casting, as they did, a doubt upon the presence of the Spanish ships in Cienfuegos, his efforts should have been redoubled to settle beyond question whether the enemy were in that port. On May 22 he stood in toward the entrance of the harbor, and by means of glasses attempted to ascertain whether the Spanish ships were inside. He also sent a lookout aloft. But the harbor of Cienfuegos is so formed that it is impossible to examine it thoroughly from the sea, and he gained no information of value.

Sampson received corroboration of the report of Cervera's presence in Santiago, and at three o'clock on the morning of May 21 prepared new instructions to Schley, which were sent by the Marblehead. In this communication Schley was informed that the Spanish squadron was probably at Santiago de Cuba. "If you are satisfied that they are not at Cienfuegos," Sampson wrote, "proceed with all despatch, but cautiously, to Santiago de Cuba, and, if the enemy is there, blockade him in port." Concerned about the early delivery of the orders sent by the Marblehead, Sampson ordered the gunboat Hawk to convey a duplicate to Schley, and accompanied it by a memorandum which left no doubt of the presence of Cervera at Santiago. "It is thought that the inclosed instructions will reach you by 2 o'clock A.M., May 23," Sampson said. "This will enable you to leave before daylight (regarded very important), so that your direction may not be noticed and be at Santiago A.M. May 24."

It is now necessary to shift the scene to Schley at Cienfuegos. On the night of May 22 he noticed lights on shore, arranged in line and having the appearance of signals. These lights appeared again on the night of May 23. They were noticed by other officers of his command, and caused considerable speculation. Nothing was done to ascertain what they were, and no attempt was made to send a boat to the shore to communicate with the insurgents, who, as the McCalla memorandum stated, were in the vicinity of Cienfuegos. In view of this

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This is the ninth of a series of papers appearing in The Outlook. Other papers will be: The Battle of Santiago, Valiant Deeds in the War with Spain; Samoa, the Philippines, and China.

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memorandum, it is surprising that Commodore Schley, in official communications, should have stated that he "had no knowledge that there were any insurgents about Cienfuegos who were friendly to us until the Marblehead arrived on the 24th." Schley claims that he did not receive the McCalla memorandum by the Iowa or Dupont, though he admits it reached him at 8:15 A.M., May 23, by the Hawk. The Hawk delivered her despatches before the Marblehead arrived. In order to save time, Sampson accompanied the Hawk some eighteen miles from Key West, writing, as his flagship and the despatch-boat sped along, the instruction urgently directing Schley to hasten to Santiago. Imperative as was this instruction, the only thing done on May 23 to ascertain whether the Spanish ships were within the harbor of Cienfuegos was to permit the entrance of the British steamer Adula, which carried authenticated papers from a United States Consul authorizing her to receive as passengers any persons who desired to leave Cienfuegos. Her commander informed Schley that he had passed the lights of seven ships, which he took to be Spanish, near Jamaica, on May 18, and that a war bulletin published at Kingston announced the arrival of Cervera's fleet at Santiago on May 19, and its departure from that point on the following day. From the refugees on board when the Adula came out, Schley expected to get information as to whether or not the Spanish ships were in the harbor, but she was not permitted to leave while he was in sight.

The Marblehead, accompanied by the auxiliary gunboats Vixen and Eagle, reached Cienfuegos on May 24 and delivered despatches, and Captain McCalla, of the Marblehead, told Commodore Schley that the Spanish force was reported at Santiago. McCalla asked Schley if he had seen any lights on shore, to which Schley replied in the affirmative, and McCalla then stated that they were signals which he had arranged with the insurgents before his departure from Cienfuegos. The mistake of Schley in failing to speak McCalla thirty miles from Key West, when he knew that that officer had been off Cienfuegos, must have been apparent to him then. Receiving permission from Schley, McCalla, in the Marblehead and accompanied by the Eagle, went to Savanilla Point. He promptly learned from insurgents there that Cervera was not in the harbor of Cienfuegos, and he sent the Eagle post-haste to convey this information to the Commodore.

Schley received the report of Commander McCalla between three and four o'clock on the afternoon of May 24. He immediately prepared despatches, which were forwarded to the Commander-in-Chief and to the Commandant of the naval base at Key West. In his message to the Department he stated that he had ascertained from insurgents that the Spanish fleet was not in Cienfuegos, and added that, as it was not practicable to coal the Texas from the collier at Cienfuegos on account of the swell, he would "proceed to-morrow for Santiago de Cuba." This delay was hardly in accord with the demands of the situation, or with the instructions he had received by the Hawk on the 23d and the Marblehead on the 24th. "Spanish squadron probably Santiago de Cuba," the despatch by the Marblehead read. ". . . If you are satisfied that they are not at Cienfuegos, proceed with all despatch, but cautiously, to Santiago de Cuba, and, if the enemy is there, blockade him in port." The instruction by the Hawk was explicit, imperative. Schley, however, reconsidered his determination to wait until the morrow. He left for Santiago about 7:45 in the evening of May 24.

Such was the course of events at Cienfuegos. We know it now, when all the facts have come to light through the investigation made by the now famous Schley Court of Inquiry in 1901. We did not know it then. Then the delay was inexplicable, and the failure to ascertain without loss of time whether Cervera was at Cienfuegos was a matter of the keenest anxiety in Washington. Each day's information, after the first report that Cervera was probably at Santiago, increased the probability of his presence there, and the certainty that, if not already coaled and ready to sail, he was straining every nerve to get in condition to leave his port of refuge before we could assemble an overwhelming force before it. For us, in the Department, it was a time of nervousness, but of hope, allied with apprehension. Cervera's escape would have been a distinct blow to our prestige. We

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would have overhauled him in the end, but his first move would have been successful, and Europe would have hailed it as an American defeat.

This was the condition of mind of the Department on May 25, when it received a despatch from Schley, filed at the cable station at Mole St. Nicholas, Hayti, on the same day. This message had been brought by the Harvard, to which it had been given by the Scorpion, which had been sent by Schley in obedience to Sampson's instructions to communicate with the scouts off Santiago. Schley's despatch contained information of events of May 21 and 22. He was unable to state whether the Spanish fleet was in Cienfuegos or not, and he anticipated difficulty in coaling his ships from the collier Merrimac, laden with 4,500 tons of coal, which had been sent to him by Sampson. Commodore Remey at Key West received on May 26, and immediately transmitted to the Department, Schley's message of May 24, stating that he had learned that the Spanish fleet was not at Cienfuegos and that he would move eastward on May 25. "On account of want of coal," Schley added, "I cannot blockade."

The Department was decidedly puzzled by this second despatch. Why had Schley not obeyed the instruction sent to him by Sampson under date of May 21 to proceed to Santiago? Why, after having learned that the enemy was not in Cienfuegos, did he not move immediately upon Santiago instead of waiting until the morrow? Effort was made, but it was impossible to obtain additional information of Schley's purpose. Besides the despatches to the Department, Schley had cabled to Sampson a duplicate of his message sent by the Harvard to the Secretary of the Navy, and, on May 26, the Commander-in-Chief received from him two letters dated May 23. In one of his letters Schley stated, "Am not satisfied that the Spanish squadron is not at Cienfuegos. The large amount of smoke seen in the harbor would indicate the presence of a number of vessels, and under such circumstances it would seem to be extremely unwise to chase up a probability at Santiago de Cuba reported via Havana no doubt as a ruse. I shall therefore remain off this port with this squadron, availing myself of every opportunity for coaling and keeping it ready for any emergency." The second letter from Schley closed: "I think I have them here almost to a certainty." Commodore Schley's belief was not that of his subordinates. Lieutenant John Hood, commanding the Hawk, who brought these communications from him, advised the Commander-in-Chief that a good number of officers "do not believe the Spaniards are there at all, although they can only surmise." It was at 1 P.M. of May 27 that Sampson, who was in St. Nicholas Channel, received Schley's despatch of May 24 in regard to the establishment of the fact that the Spaniards were not in Cienfuegos and of his purpose to sail on May 25 for Santiago.

These despatches caused anxiety to the Department and Sampson. Immediately after the receipt of the message brought by the Harvard, the Department cabled to the commanding officer of that vessel, under date of May 25, directing him to proceed at once and inform Schley and also the senior officer of the scouts off Santiago that the information at hand indicated that the Spanish division was still at Santiago. Schley was to be informed that the Department looked to him "to ascertain facts and that the enemy, if therein, does not leave without a decisive action." He was advised that Cubans reported landing-places five or six miles west from the mouth of the harbor, at which insurgents would probably be found, and that from the heights surrounding the harbor every vessel in port could be seen. To relieve his anxiety concerning coal, he was informed that a fresh supply would be sent to Mole St. Nicholas, and it was suggested that his squadron and the Harvard could coal from the collier Merrimac to the leeward of Cape Cruz, in Gonaives Channel, or at Mole St. Nicholas. Sampson, ignorant of what the Department had done, also acted. On the morning of May 27 he sent the Wasp, via Cape San Antonio, to Cienfuegos, with instructions to inform Schley that "every report, and particularly daily confidential reports, received from Havana, up until May 25, state that the Spanish squadron had been at Santiago since May 19." The Flying Squadron was ordered to proceed with all possible despatch to Santiago and estab-

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lish a blockade, unless upon arrival positive information were obtained of the departure of the Spanish ships, in which event it was to follow in pursuit. This despatch by the Wasp did not reach Schley at Cienfuegos.

Had Schley been at Cienfuegos at the time the Wasp arrived, he could have reached Santiago before Sampson could have done so; the latter, therefore, retained his squadron in St. Nicholas Channel. Sampson determined personally to proceed to Key West, coal, and, with the authority of the Department, sail for Santiago. Before his arrival at the naval base he communicated to Captain W. M. Folger, commanding the cruiser New Orleans, an instruction to convoy the collier Sterling through the Bahama Channel, and then, leaving her, to go with all despatch to Santiago. "You will communicate with Commodore Schley," Captain Folger was instructed, "and direct him to remain on the blockade of Santiago at all hazards, assuming that the Spanish vessels are in that port." It was suggested to Schley that, to prevent the escape of the enemy's division, the Sterling should be sunk across the narrowest part of the channel leading into the harbor. "Inform Commodore Schley," Sampson added, "that the details of this plan are left to his judgment. In the meantime he must exercise the utmost care that none of the vessels already in port are allowed to escape, and say to the Commodore that I have the utmost confidence in his ability to carry this plan to a successful conclusion, and earnestly wish him good luck." The idea of sinking a vessel across the entrance of Santiago de Cuba had been considered by the Naval War Board and had received its approval. With the mouth of the harbor closed, the escape of Cervera would have been impossible, and the capture of his ships could have been effected by the army, a division of which the War Department was at the time preparing to embark.

The Navy Department believed with Sampson that on May 24 the Flying Squadron had arrived off Santiago. But on May 26 we learned that not until May 24, three days after May 21, the date reported by Schley as that of his arrival off Cienfuegos, though May 22 was the date upon which he established a blockade, had the Commodore finally and definitely ascertained that the Spanish division was not in that port, and this notwithstanding the receipt of information from Washington and the Commander-in-Chief indicating that it was at Santiago. And when satisfied that Cervera was not at Cienfuegos, he cabled that he would sail for Santiago, not immediately, as his instructions required, but the next day, and that, on account of the short coal supply of his ships, he could not blockade Santiago! There was no fast scout available, but on the chance of one soon touching at Mole St. Nicholas, the Department cabled on May 27 to that point for delivery to the next American man-of-war to arrive:

> Proceed immediately and deliver following to Schley: The most absolutely urgent thing now is to know positively whether the Spanish division is in Santiago de Cuba harbor, as, if so, immediate movement against it and the town will be made by the navy and division of about 10,000 United States troops, which are ready to embark. You must surmount difficulty regarding coaling by your own ingenuity and perseverance. This is a crucial time, and the Department relies upon you to give quickly information as to Cervera's presence, and to be all ready for concerted action with the army. Two colliers have been ordered to St. Nicholas Mole, and your ships might coal singly there, or in Gonaives Channel, or to leeward of Cape Cruz. Sampson will convoy the army transports, probably coming around by the Windward Passage. Yankee will join you and the Minneapolis will go north. Cervera must not be allowed to escape.
>
> LONG.

That the apprehension of the Navy Department and the Commander-in-Chief regarding the prospective flight of the Spanish division from Santiago de Cuba was well founded is demonstrated by the official despatches of Admiral Cervera, which were published after the war. On May 23 he was advised that twelve hostile ships were off Cienfuegos and that the Indiana, New York, and other vessels had gone from Havana to the windward, leaving only four gunboats on the blockade of that port. Later in the same day Cervera received secret information of the positions of our ships. He determined to sail from Santiago at daybreak the following morning for San Juan, Porto Rico, but it was decided at a subsequent meeting of the Commander-in-Chief and his captains that,

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"owing to the location of the hostile forces and their number and strength, it is considered impossible to carry out said plan." Contributory to this decision was the fact that four American ships lay off the harbor, the strength of which Cervera did not know, but which we knew to be simply vulnerable scouts. Having defective instruments and inadequate resources, Cervera lost heart, and on May 25 he cabled to Madrid that his division was blockaded. Yet Schley had not arrived. Cervera felt, however, that he could hope to gain little by leaving Santiago. "If another opportunity presents itself," he wrote on May 25, "I intend to try and take advantage of it, but as I cannot hope with these scant forces to attempt any definite operations, it will only be a matter of changing this harbor for another where we would also be blockaded." On May 26 Cervera again convened his captains, and it was unanimously decided that the squadron should sail in the afternoon for San Juan. In the meantime three hostile ships were sighted, and a pilot expressed the opinion that in going out the Colon might sustain injury on account of her draft by striking a flat rock in the channel. Five of Cervera's captains voted against departure; two urged that they should immediately sail. Cervera approved the opinion of the majority, because he did not consider the circumstances so extreme as to make it necessary to risk the loss of one of his ships.

Cervera's hesitation was unknown to the Department and to our officers. We believed him feverishly working to repair and coal his ships, as indeed he was. The coal supply of our scouts off Santiago was running low. If Schley arrived off that port and failed to stay, there was danger, it was believed, that the United States would be without a single vessel in its vicinity to make report of Cervera's departure. Consequently we would be absolutely in ignorance as to the direction he had taken, and the problem of search would have to be worked out all over again.

It is advisable now to follow Schley again. He had been instructed by order of May 21 to "proceed with all despatch, but cautiously, to Santiago de Cuba." On the same day Sampson had advised him to leave Cienfuegos before daylight May 23, so that he could arrive at Santiago on the morning of May 24. Leaving the gunboat Castine to maintain the blockade at Cienfuegos, Schley sailed from that point about 8 P.M. of May 24, his heavy ships in column of vessels, with the lighter ships on his flanks. Heavy rolling caused the forward compartment of the gunboat Eagle to fill with water, causing reduction of her speed, and the weather on the following day, May 25, was bad. In a battle with the Spanish division the little Eagle would have been of no value, and Commodore Schley, in view of the paramount necessity of getting in contact with the Spanish fleet, should have left her to take care of herself and have gone on with his fighting ships. Instead, he reduced the speed of the squadron in order to permit the Eagle to keep up with it. On the following day, when the weather had moderated, and the Eagle's compartments had been freed of water, he ordered her to Jamaica.

The orders of Schley were to go to Santiago de Cuba. He failed to obey them promptly. At 5:30 P.M. of May 26 he was twenty-two miles to the southward of the port named in his instructions. The distance Sampson expected Schley to cover within thirty hours actually occupied more than forty-five hours, and even then the Flying Squadron was not at Santiago. The scouts Minneapolis, Yale, and St. Paul joined Schley at this time, and a few minutes later the Commodore was informed that an accident had occurred to a part of the engine of the collier Merrimac. Captain Charles D. Sigsbee, who commanded the St. Paul, informed Schley that the scouts knew nothing positively or absolutely about the movements of the Spanish fleet, but he says he recited certain events to show that there was a probability that Cervera was in Santiago at the time. Whether unnecessarily uneasy about the coal supply of his vessels or because of the accident sustained by the Merrimac, which increased the difficulty of coaling, though the conditions of wind, sea, and weather were sufficiently favorable for this operation, or for what inexplicable reason, Schley, at 7:45 P.M. May 26, signaled to his squadron: "Destination, Key West, via south side of Cuba and Yucatan Channel, as soon as collier is ready; speed nine knots." The Yale took the

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Merrimac in tow, and the squadron actually turned back from its almost reached goal and proceeded westward until 11:15 P.M., when, the tow-lines having parted, it stopped and drifted until 3:40 P.M. of May 27. While the squadron was lying at the drift of wind and current, the Harvard arrived at 9:30 A.M. of May 27, and delivered the Department's despatch above quoted, stating that all indications pointed to the presence of the Spanish ships in Santiago de Cuba, which he was directed to confirm. Schley answered this message three hours later by a cablegram which caused consternation when it reached the Department on May 28. This message may be classed as one of the most infelicitous in history, and it is worth quoting:

"Merrimac's engine is disabled, and she is helpless; am obliged to have her towed to Key West. Have been absolutely unable to coal the Texas, Marblehead, Vixen, and Brooklyn from collier, owing to very rough seas and boisterous weather since leaving Key West. Brooklyn is only one in squadron having more than sufficient coal to reach Key West. Impossible to remain off Santiago in present state of coal account of the squadron. Not possible to coal to leeward of Cape Cruz in summer owing to southwest winds. Harvard just reports to me she has only coal enough to reach Jamaica, and she will proceed to Port Royal. Also reports only small vessels could coal at Gonaives or Mole, Haiti. Minneapolis has only coal enough to reach Key West, and same of Yale, which will tow Merrimac. It is to be regretted that the Department's orders cannot be obeyed, earnestly as we have all striven to that end. I am forced to return to Key West, via Yucatan Passage, for coal. Can ascertain nothing certain concerning enemy. Was obliged to send Eagle to Port Antonio, Jamaica, yesterday, as she had only twenty-seven tons of coal on board. Will leave St. Paul here. Will require 9,500 tons of coal at Key West."

I remember well the receipt of this despatch. I was with President McKinley at the army review at Camp Alger. His face fell when I showed it to him. It was incomprehensible—the first flinching of the campaign. It was the darkest day of the war. It was the lack, not of personal courage, but of that unswerving steadiness of purpose and nerve which is the essence of supreme command, and of which Farragut is an example. Undoubtedly it is a fair criticism on the Department that Schley was not relieved at once and an inquiry ordered. But it was not then known just what his situation was, and it was taken for granted that the Commander-in-Chief, Sampson, who was near at hand, would take proper action, as, had he been senior in service, he would probably have done.

The situation of his command appeared at the Schley Court of Inquiry in 1901 not to have been as Schley reported it. At noon on May 27 his vessels had coal enough to have remained on blockade duty off Santiago de Cuba—the Brooklyn for 26 days, the Iowa for 16 days, the Massachusetts for 20 days, the Texas for 10 days, the Marblehead for 5 days, and the Vixen for 23 days, and then they would have had sufficient fuel to reach Gonaives or Cape Cruz, where they could have refilled their bunkers from the Merrimac, which contained 4,350 tons of coal. The amount of coal required to have completely supplied these ships was 2,750 tons. Schley must have known when he sent his despatch that the Iowa, Castine, and Dupont had coaled at Cienfuegos on May 23, and the Massachusetts and Castine on May 24. Permission had been asked by the Texas on May 23 to coal, but she was refused, and ordered to coal on the following day. This order was subsequently revoked. Indeed, the Texas and Marblehead did actually coal from the Merrimac at sea off Santiago on the evening of May 27 and the morning of May 28; and the Massachusetts and Vixen on May 29, the Brooklyn and Iowa on May 30, and the Brooklyn, Texas, and Marblehead on May 31. Thus there were but two days—the 25th and the 26th—when no coal was transferred from the collier to the men-of-war, and the failure to take fuel on these days was not due wholly to rough seas and boisterous weather or to the helplessness of the Merrimac, but to the fact that the squadron was under way. Captain McCalla, when at Cienfuegos, had informed Commodore Schley that coaling operations could be conducted in the vicinity of Cape Cruz, and that no difficulty would be experienced in coaling on the south

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side of the northern promontory of Hayti. Yet, in spite of the fact that there was ample coal in the bunkers of his fighting ships, that attached to his command was a collier carrying an abundant supply of fuel, that the weather was not too rough for coaling his vessels, and, finally, that near by there were points sheltered from the wind at which coaling could be conducted with safety, Schley cabled the Department: "It is to be regretted that the Department's orders cannot be obeyed, earnestly as we have all striven to that end." Another phase of Schley's action which seriously concerned the Department was his statement that the Harvard would proceed to Port Royal, the Minneapolis to Key West, and that the Yale would accompany him, leaving only the St. Paul, with a depleted coal supply, off Santiago. We did not know until later that for nearly twenty-four hours—that is, from 6 P.M. May 26 to 5 P.M. May 27—not a single scout was off the harbor of Santiago. But we did know that the St. Paul could not keep touch with the Spanish fleet if it attempted to escape, and make frequent reports to the Department, and our plan of constantly following Cervera was in danger of being frustrated by the orders of the Commander of the Flying Squadron.

Schley had been instructed that the Department was looking to him to ascertain whether the Spanish division was at Santiago. He excuses his action in deliberately turning his ships away from that port and starting back for Key West on the ground that Captain Sigsbee told him he had not seen the enemy, and that a pilot, whom Captain Sigsbee and Schley himself did not at first fully trust, expressed the opinion that the Spanish ships could not enter the harbor because of their length. Captain Sigsbee told Schley that he had captured a collier bound for Santiago with coal for Cervera, and this certainly indicated that, if the Spanish division were not at Santiago, that port was its destination. Whatever the opinions expressed by the commander of the scout and by the pilot, however, they were based upon negative information, and Schley's first duty was to have established beyond the shadow of a doubt whether Cervera was in the harbor.

The squadron, again, strange to say, resumed its retrograde westward course at 3:40 P.M. of May 27, and steamed thirty-three miles, stopping once more at 7:15 P.M., when the Texas went alongside of the Merrimac and coaled. The squadron again drifted until 1 P.M. of May 28, when Schley signaled to the fleet to turn again and proceed to Santiago. He arrived at a point seven miles south of the harbor at 6 P.M. May 28, and established a blockade. Had he obeyed the orders of Sampson, he would have reached that point on the morning of May 24. The result of his vacillation and lack of push was that Cervera had had several days in which to coal and make repairs to the engines of his ships. In the early morning of May 29, the day following Schley's arrival, he discovered the Colon and Teresa and two torpedo-boat destroyers moored inside of the Moro.

Schley's arrival at Santiago and his discovery of the Spanish vessels were not known in Washington until late in the evening of May 29. The receipt of his despatch announcing his purpose to go to Key West imposed upon the Department the necessity of taking action which would repair the grievous, and it might be the disastrous, mistake he had made. Following the receipt of his message, the Department cabled to the Harvard for delivery to Schley, "as soon as possible: utmost urgency," an instruction to remain off Santiago unless it were unsafe to do so or unless the Spanish division were not there. To Rear-Admiral Sampson a despatch was sent giving the contents of Schley's cable, and asking him how soon after arrival of Schley at Key West he could reach Santiago with the New York and Oregon, Indiana, and some lighter vessels, and how long he could blockade that port. Sampson promptly replied. "Answering the first question, three days. I can blockade indefinitely. Think that I can occupy Guantanamo. Would like to start at once with New York and Oregon. Do not quite understand as to the necessity of awaiting arrival of Schley, but I would propose meeting and turning back the principal part of the force under his command." Before the New York and Oregon could leave Key West, another despatch came from Schley saying that he would hold on. But though he also reported

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that he had sighted only four of the Spanish ships, it was believed that the naval base at Key West could be safely left undefended, and that the battleship Indiana and the monitor could prevent the remaining Spanish ships, if they were not at Santiago, from entering Havana. Schley was advised that Sampson was coming, and he was urged to locate the missing armored cruisers. Though the Colon and other vessels of the Spanish squadron were discovered lying in the entrance of the harbor on the morning of May 29, it was not until 1:30 P.M. of May 31 that an attempt was made to capture or destroy them. The Department's orders to the Commander-in-Chief, a copy of which had been furnished to Schley, but which he denies having received, authorized him to expose his ships to the heaviest guns of land batteries if there were Spanish vessels of sufficient military importance protected by these guns to make an attack advisable. Instead of approaching within effective range of the enemy, Schley signaled that the Massachusetts, Iowa, and New Orleans should open fire at a range of 7,000 yards, and this range increased until it was 11,000 yards. At this great distance, our fire, as well as the return fire of the Spanish vessels and batteries, was ineffective. The chance of hitting the enemy was still further diminished by the speed—ten knots—of the American men-of-war and the brief time—four minutes—each had to sight and fire its guns at the targets, partially protected by the bold headlands of the harbor.

Sampson arrived off Santiago at 6 A.M. on the morning of June 1. "The importance of absolutely preventing departure of Spanish squadron of paramount importance," he telegraphed to the Department from Key West on May 28, "and demands the prompt and efficient use of every means." The disaster which Cervera had predicted as far back as 1897 was looming portentously upon the Spanish horizon. Upon arrival at Santiago, Sampson established a blockade so strict that the Spanish sentinels could hear the cries of the watch on the American ships. Cervera declared that, with the harbor entrance blockaded as it was during that fateful month of June, it was disaster to leave. "It was absolutely impossible to go out at night," he wrote after the war, "because in this narrow channel, illuminated by a dazzling light, we could not have followed the channel and would have lost the ships, some by running aground, others by colliding with their own companions. But, even supposing that we had succeeded in going out, before the first ship was outside we should have been seen and covered from the very first with the concentrated fire of the whole squadron."

It is easy, in the light of the foregoing facts, to see the propriety of the opinion of the Schley Court of Inquiry, which upon the points testified to was unanimous except as not very materially modified in one or two minor details by Admiral Dewey in the memorandum which he submitted with that opinion. This modification, as will be seen, relates to the degree of despatch with which the passage from Key West to twenty-two miles south of Santiago was made, to the steamer Adula, and to the blockades of Cienfuegos and Santiago. In all other respects the opinion of the Court stands on the record as unanimous.

The opinion of the Court is as follows:

Commodore Schley, in command of the Flying Squadron, should have proceeded with the utmost despatch off Cienfuegos, and should have maintained a close blockade of that port.

He should have endeavored on May 23, at Cienfuegos, to obtain information regarding the Spanish squadron by communicating with the insurgents at the place designated in the memorandum delivered to him at 8:15 A.M. of that date.

He should have proceeded from Cienfuegos to Santiago de Cuba with all despatch, and should have disposed his vessels with a view of intercepting the enemy in any attempt to pass the Flying Squadron.

He should not have delayed the squadron for the Eagle.

He should not have made the retrograde turn westward with his squadron.

He should have promptly obeyed the Navy Department's order of May 25.

He should have endeavored to capture or destroy the Spanish vessels at anchor near the entrance of Santiago Harbor on May 29 and 30.

He did not do his utmost with the force under his command to capture or destroy the Colon and other vessels of the enemy which he attacked on May 31.

By commencing the engagement on July 3 with the port battery and turning the Brooklyn around with port helm Commodore Schley caused her to lose distance and position with the Spanish vessels, especially with the Vizcaya and Colon.

The turn of the Brooklyn to starboard was

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made to avoid getting her into dangerous proximity to the Spanish vessels. The turn was made toward the Texas and caused that vessel to stop and to back her engines to avoid possible collision.

Admiral Schley did injustice to Lieutenant-Commander A. C. Hodgson in publishing only a portion of the correspondence which passed between them.

Commodore Schley's conduct in connection with the events of the Santiago campaign prior to June 1, 1898, was characterized by vacillation, dilatoriness, and lack of enterprise.

His official reports regarding the coal supply and the coaling facilities of the Flying Squadron were inaccurate and misleading.

His conduct during the battle of July 3 was self-possessed, and he encouraged, in his own person, his subordinate officers and men to fight courageously.

GEORGE DEWEY,
Admiral, U. S. N., President,
SAM. C. LEMLY,
Judge-Advocate-General, U. S. N., Judge-Advocate.

The memorandum of Admiral Dewey is as follows:

In the opinion of the undersigned the passage from Key West to Cienfuegos was made by the Flying Squadron with all possible despatch, Commodore Schley having in view the importance of arriving off Cienfuegos with as much coal as possible in the ships' bunkers.

The blockade of Cienfuegos was effective.

Commodore Schley in permitting the steamer Adula to enter the port of Cienfuegos expected to obtain information concerning the Spanish Squadron from her when she came out.

The passage from Cienfuegos to a point about 22 miles south of Santiago was made with as much despatch as was possible while keeping the squadron a unit.

The blockade of Santiago was effective.

Commodore Schley was the senior officer of our squadron off Santiago when the Spanish Squadron attempted to escape on the morning of July 3, 1898. He was in absolute command, and is entitled to the credit due to such commanding officer for the glorious victory which resulted in the total destruction of the Spanish ships.

GEORGE DEWEY,
Admiral, U. S. N., President.

With regard to the final paragraph in the above memorandum of Admiral Dewey as to the question of command in the later battle of Santiago, July 3, 1898, on which it will be noted that the full Court in its opinion expressed no view, and reference to which more properly belongs to a later chapter, this question not only had not been before the Court, but the Court, through Admiral Dewey himself as its spokesman, had emphatically refused to consider it or hear evidence with regard to it. That, in face of this fact, he should, unlike his associates, pass judgment upon it, has been a subject of surprise and criticism, as it left him in the position of agreeing with his associates on all the more important matters which were considered by him and them, and of then expressing an opinion, while his associates properly expressed none, on a matter vital to a brother officer on which the full Court had refused to hear any evidence on either side.

There have been few more notable trials than that before this Court of Inquiry. It was composed of three distinguished naval officers, Admiral Dewey and Rear-Admirals Benham and Ramsay. It lasted from September 12 to the middle of December, 1901. Judge-Advocate-General Lemly, assisted by the Solicitor of his office, Mr. E. P. Hanna, both of whom made able arguments, put in with great care and fairness the evidence of the witnesses summoned by them, while Admiral Schley was represented with distinguished animation and force by Hon. Isidor Raynor, a leading member of the Baltimore bar. The attendance was large and the public interest great. An appeal was taken to the President, but without changing the result, and the finding and opinion of the Court therefore stand as the historical record.

The Message of the Heart

By Edwin Henry Keen

Unnoticed, saving each to each,
The look, the touch,
The voiceless language, silent speech,
That mean so much.

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The Jacob Tome Institute

By Charles de Kay

ENDOWMENTS in aid of education form the salient features of our modern life, but usually the aim of the donor is to found, if not an entire college or university, something that subserves the higher education, a dormitory at least, a library or laboratory at some old place of learning. Less ambitious views had the late Jacob Tome. Before he died he founded for his fellow-citizens a school of secondary education at Port Deposit, Maryland, and by his will he left the bulk of his large fortune to establish a very great school, but not a college, non-sectarian and democratic in spirit. It was placed in the hands of nine trustees, constituting a board, of which his widow is the President. The estate amounts to two million dollars, while nearly a million have been spent on preparing the grounds and erecting such buildings as are needed for the present.

As one may gather from the portrait of Jacob Tome, he was a quiet, steadfast man of business, punctilious in keeping his engagements and utterly unpretending in his views and aspirations. He was one of the dependable men who bear fortune and mishap with equanimity and when they die surprise even their friends at the public spirit and far-sightedness concealed under a reticent exterior.

Of course one thinks of the big public schools of England, like Eton and Harrow; or of the gymnasia in Germany and the lycées in France. But it is doubtful if Jacob Tome intended his millions to be used in a foundation like any of these. Certainly it was not especially his thought to establish a preparatory school for universities. Rather was his idea, without excluding the preparation for college, to afford a place where the boy intending to embrace a commercial career might be prepared for his life-work and at the same time gain some of the advantages that a university offers. His conception of the Jacob Tome Institute is not easy to grasp; it may be that he never clearly defined it in his own mind; but so far as one can see, it was a school that was neither exactly business college nor preparatory school, but an educational center partaking of both, on graduating from which a boy would be prepared to enter active life or, in some special school, work for a profession, just as he chose.

Undoubtedly his friendship with Johns Hopkins, of Baltimore, did much to turn his attention into such channels. At times one is tempted to believe that he was considering something which might take the place of an undergraduate department, while Johns Hopkins University is in the main a university where graduates carry forward special studies. Given his purpose to reinforce the educational advantages of his State and the seaboard States in general with an institute that might aid education where it is weakest, no more picturesque, no more convenient place could have been chosen than the higher lands just by Port Deposit, where Mr. Tome lived.

A little town of one street between the edge of the Susquehanna and the hills, Port Deposit was at first waked from its slumbers by the building in 1889 of the old school-house by Mr. Tome, but has now leaped into fame by the erection on the higher land above of a series of buildings which many a college might envy. The architects, Boring and Tilton, and the landscape engineer, Charles W. Leavitt, Jr., have had the rare pleasure of laying out an Institute from the start, having no earlier buildings to consider, no streets or avenues or private property to humor in their plans. From the bluff where the residence of the principal stands one gazes off, down the broad Susquehanna, past a historic island and the railway bridges, toward Havre de Grace and the Chesapeake. Up-stream the eye follows the winding of the river across a cluster of small islands. Inland there is a rolling country diversified with groves of trees and pointed here and there with the strong, dark exclamation of the cedar, where some farmer has provided against the need of posts in the following generation. Hill and dale and blue distant ridge and solemn gleaming river form a combination of landscape beauties which impressed Jacob Tome with the feeling that here was a

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fitting spot for the largest institute, a spot where Nature might play her part in education, and where, on the merely practical side, the thousands who should enjoy the privileges his wealth had prepared for them would live in most healthful surroundings. For, on the one side, the space for land sports is without limit, and, on the other, the river and estuary furnish all the water sports of summer and winter that any one can reasonably demand.

Conspicuous in the view is Palmer Island, just below Port Deposit, before the Susquehanna enters the Chesapeake. Singularly enough, that island was chosen two hundred and eighty years ago by Edward Palmer, of Warwickshire, a graduate of Oxford, for the site of a school to enlighten the colony of Virginia, the foundation to be called Academia Virginiensis Oxoniensis, as we learn from his will directing that, in default of heirs, it shall remain for that purpose. The location on an island was probably suggested on the principle of safety from Indians; for while the local Indians of Maryland, Virginia, and Pennsylvania were not very dangerous, the war parties of the Five Nations from the distant region of the Great Lakes used the Susquehanna as one of their main highways for raids on the coast Indians. And if, like so many other plans and projects in colonial times, the generous idea of Edward Palmer never came to fruition, if this Academy which would have antedated Harvard College never was founded after all, it is pleasant to think that the great fortune amassed by Jacob Tome two and a half centuries later should be expended to establish a school that fills a gap in the great educational fabric of the United States in the present day.

The location of the Tome Institute is ideal, not only for its natural beauty and healthfulness, but for its accessibility. It draws its pupils from the neighbor States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia, being situated in Cecil County, Maryland, near stations on the Philadelphia and Baltimore Central. It is forty miles from Baltimore, sixty from Philadelphia, and eighty from Washington. Four miles off is a station on the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad, giving quick connection with New York. There are also daily steamers to Baltimore from Port Deposit.

To those who have seen the plateau above Port Deposit when all was rolling pasture and farmland, the change is difficult to realize as one stands in a formal garden with balustrades bearing vases full of shrubs and looks northward to Memorial Hall, a stately building of granite and Indiana limestone, with its pillared portico, strong roof-line, and cupola rising in octagonal stages to the circular, eight-columned belfry; then looks westward to the Director's residence, with its four-columned porch outlined in profile against the bold wooded bank of the Susquehanna opposite Port Deposit, and then, turning eastward, sees the less severe architecture of the Inn, a wooden structure with its semicircular piazzas jutting out from the center of the building.

Although the Institute is now in its ninth year, formal dedicatory services were held only last month. Nearly three thousand people attended the celebration, which was an important event in the history of American secondary education. Several speakers of National prominence took part in the exercises, and over fifty educational institutions were represented by delegates. Notable among the speeches was the tribute to the founder of the Institute rendered by Senator McComas. Provost Harrison, of the University of Pennsylvania, in his remarks, pointed out that Tome Institute, while it had a financial capitalization exceeded by only nine out of the nearly five hundred colleges and universities of the United States, "had sprung into being ready for its perpetual and beneficent work without the sore struggle which almost every school, college, and university has had to make." President Denny, of Washington and Lee University, urged better co-ordination between the universities and the secondary schools, and predicted great usefulness for Tome Institute in this direction. The exercises closed with the unveiling of a life-size portrait of the founder.

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Lanier's "Shakspere and his Forerunners"[1]

WHILE Sidney Lanier has been the occasion for a cult to a small circle of admirers, the world at large has been deaf to his music and his theories. This is the habit of the world toward a man who does not deliver his message in the world's terms and language. A recent critic has declared that Lanier was "the most memorable man of letters as yet produced by the South," adding thereto, however, that a lack of articulate expression debars him from the honors of lofty distinction. Every reader of "The Marshes of Glynn" and a few other poems by Lanier must feel that at times this Southern poet touched and grasped the high-hanging fruit which is the nutriment of real greatness; yet a perusal of most of his other work, both in poetry and criticism, will convince him that, in the main, Lanier's reach exceeded his grasp. His ears heard more than his lips could adequately report, at least for the average man. So he remains the object of homage for a few.

On the other hand, there was real greatness in this man's life. No one can read the simple record of that noble career without profound emotion; it recalls the tragic story of Keats. The breath of life came into the body of Lanier with pain, and it went forth from it vibrant with music and passionate beauty. Like Keats, he wrote with one hand and warded off death with the other; and like him, too, he had that peculiar sensitiveness of temperament which, while inspiring, is also exhausting. The voice of the violin sent him into trances from which he awoke with distressed nerves. Nevertheless, he was no weakling, no "sentimental bardling." He fought as a private all through the long years of the Civil War, and with a singleness of devotion that refused advancement from the ranks. After the war had closed, he turned to scholarship and literary creation with equally militant zeal. His chronic disease, however, slowly got the better of him. "It was daily a question of his ability to stand on his feet," writes a friend. His "Sunrise" was written when his hand shook and his temperature was at a hundred and four; and his last lectures were delivered with gaspings for breath to an audience momentarily fearful of a collapse. Nevertheless, he preached his gospel of the "holiness of beauty" to the end with enthusiasm; until, amid the shadows of death, to apply his phrase for another, "he caught a crystal cupful of the yellow light of sunset, and, persuading himself to dream it wine, he drank it with a sort of smile."

His lectures on Shakespeare and his predecessors, which have long lain in manuscript, are now printed and offered to us in two large, handsome, and aptly illustrated volumes. Knowing the circumstances of their composition and delivery, he would be a heartless critic who should apply to these remains the rigorous standards of criticism. Candor must, indeed, admit that, in their general treatment, they are an inconsequent mixture of things technically abstruse and things patently obvious. The development is shifting and persistently digressive, as if the lecturer were unable to carry out his programme and were forced to resort to substitutions. The excerpts and the selections are too copious for a scholarly treatise. But, for all these defects in the broad plan, the lectures are full of unusual and acute suggestions. The reader should take up the volumes in the mood of a prospecting gold-seeker, and if he will be content to examine a great deal of low-grade ore, he will, as a reward for his patience, come upon a great many rich nuggets of precious metal.

Lanier has a definite and individual conception of Shakespeare. To him Shakespeare and the Elizabethans were literary passions. "They are so noble, so manful, so earnest. . . . Like the good girl in the fairy tale who spoke so kindly to the old woman at the well, every time this Elizabethan age opened its mouth there fell from it a diamond, a rose, and a pearl." Shakespeare he regards as the culmination of England's awakening mind, and his purpose, par-

[1] *Shakspere and his Forerunners: Studies in Elizabethan Poetry and its Development from Early English.* By Sidney Lanier. Illustrated. In 2 vols. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York.

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tially achieved, is to show the process of the awakening from the days of Beowulf through the long centuries of twilight and semi-civilization. The early poets, he writes, molded our ancestors, and we can no more escape their influence than we can that of heredity. We have, of course, advanced beyond them in our conceptions with the awakening of our minds. Note, for example, the difference between the Anglo-Saxon view of nature and our own. In Beowulf's time nature was a waste of dreary marshes, joyless woods, and monster-haunted caves, in which, to the imagination, lurked Grendel and his kind—surviving figments in the human memory, perhaps, of the saurian monsters of Devonian and Jurassic times. Nature, in those days, was as the mother of Grendel. But in later times, in the days of Shakespeare, she becomes as a mother of Ariel—something finer, sweeter, and more benevolent. In the "Midsummer Night's Dream" Grendel gives place to Puck, and malicious hate to benignant mischief.

It is in connection with this discussion that Lanier interlards one of those passages of personal experience with which the lectures are so frequently and delightfully tinctured. We cannot resist the temptation to quote it at length, for it is so illustrative of his discursive manner and so typical of his fine sensitiveness:

> You—you moderns—you know nothing of cold. If your furnace is not giving you sixty-five degrees of Fahrenheit in the morning when you awake, you shiver—or think that you shiver—and ring to put on more coal. But, if you will allow me to be so personal, I thank Heaven I know what it is to be cold—to be cold from the crown of my head to the sole of the foot, to be cold from the cuticle in to the heart, and from the heart to the soul: I thank Heaven for it because, knowing this, I have a new revelation of the possibility of suffering, and I am able to find a paradise in a common wood fire. Knowing this, I declare to you there is not a more pathetic sight in this world than a poor man who is thoroughly cold from week to week. It is the refinement of torture. It does not gnaw, like hunger, which presently becomes a sort of insanity and relieves itself: it is dead unblest icy torment. I used to see men in the army whose silent endurance of cold brought more tears to my eyes than all the hunger and the wounds.

In his appreciation of poetry Lanier placed great emphasis on a knowledge of technique. The function of verse, in his view, was near that of music, and he believed that mere sound was fully as important as meaning. The system which is elaborated in his "Science of English Verse" is partially introduced into these lectures. Every complete poem, he declares, consists of a succession of sounds, and the formal effects of poetry are produced by the artful employment of the differences of sounds. These sounds differ in Duration, Pitch, Intensity, and Color, and poets make use of these differences to produce Rhythm, Speech-tunes, and Word-color. It will be seen from this that, in a sense, he is a disciple of Poe, to whose fragmentary theory he has added a scientific nomenclature of his own.

The sonnet-makers of the reign of Elizabeth call for a great deal of his attention and his love. "The sonnet is a confidential letter," and he compares it to a flash of lightning in a dark night whose brilliancy prints itself on the nerve with great intensity. For the sonnet, too, he has an individual theory. "Every sonnet should be a little drama." Like a play, it should have three elements—a single central idea, a development of this by subordinate ideas which are analogous to the characters on a stage, and it should also have a crisis phrased in an epigrammatic couplet for a climax. This theory, which may seem fanciful and far-fetched, is, of course, applicable only to the Shakespearean form. The Petrarchan form, with its octette and sestette, precludes any such analysis.

The chief thing in these lectures, and the one which gives them their greatest originality, is his theory of Shakespeare's development. We have observed that he placed emphatic stress on sound and music as elements of poetry, and it is his predilection for the musical point of view which gives him his basis for an interpretation of Shakespeare's career. He finds a parallel between music and the moral life. Music is the result of opposition; a tense string, set into vibration, produces music by the opposition of a longitudinal and a transverse force. So the transverse force of the human will, acting upon the longitudinal strain of the natural instincts of man, can, when properly applied, produce moral harmony and ethical music.

This doctrine of oppositions he applies to Shakespeare as a technician of art and as a seer of human nature. In both cases

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Shakespeare made conquest of the obstacles and brought forth from his soul the divine harmonies. The two phases of his genius, the technical skill and the vision of wisdom, were developed side by side. The finer verse structure is accompanied by a finer conception of character. "Shakespeare's progress was toward a more artistic arrangement of oppositions." When he was using rhyme pairs, he used also broad contrasts of characters; the inconstant lover, as a type, set off the constant into bold relief. But as he discarded rhyme the distinction of opposites, in pairs, grows less and less, and we see the characters drawn in the confusion of natural complexity.

To illustrate this theory he takes the "Midsummer Night's Dream," "Hamlet," and "The Tempest," and shows how, as the poet grew, he solved this problem of bringing oppositions into harmony. Man's relation to the supernatural is the touchstone in the test. In the "Midsummer Night's Dream" the supernatural element plays with man, crossing or blessing him without reason; it is frankly capricious and fortuitous, and the question of vital faith is not at issue.

But in "Hamlet" the mind of the author has begun to question and seek a creed. Hamlet shows inability to believe. He has "a lack of belief combined with a yearning belief that he does believe." He distrusts the ghost and the reality of the after-life, and yet he is afraid to kill the king at prayer lest he thereby send him to that heaven which he doubts. He is in a cold paralysis of irresolution because, not being able to accept the validity of the ghost's message, he cannot lay hold of the faith necessary for action. The opposition of forces here produces discord.

In "The Tempest," however, all doubts are dispelled, and "the mere belief in belief becomes a joyous and benignant assurance." The mystery of the supernatural has been resolved into Providence. The barbaric motive of revenge has given place to the divine motive of forgiveness. Doubt no longer produces a discord. The moral exaltation of benevolence is the new way—the master artist's way—of managing the oppositions of life and of bringing them into harmony. "Shakespeare has sung himself from the darkness of night into the light of morning."

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Arts in Early England (The). By G. Baldwin Brown, M.A. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 6×9 in. In 2 vols. $8, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Ancient European Philosophy: History of Greek Philosophy Psychologically Treated. By Denton J. Snider, Litt.D. The Sigma Publishing Co., St. Louis. 5½×8 in. 730 pages.

There is no lack of valuable works on this subject, but none that we have known is written from the point of view taken by Mr. Snider. This, in brief, is that there are three supreme disciplines of human thought—religion, philosophy, and psychology—each of which goes back to the fundamental process of the universe. Philosophy was brought forth out of religion, and now psychology is being brought forth out of philosophy, which, though endeavoring to interpret the universe, has reached the limit where itself needs an interpreter. Psychology, though it lays chief emphasis on man rather than upon God or the world, is essentially a return from philosophy to religion, since man in thought creates his Creator. From the standpoint thus set forth Mr. Snider describes the progress and change of Greek philosophy through its course of a thousand years. Many readers will ask him to explain wherein psychology, as he uses the term, is not philosophy under a borrowed name. There has been much complaint that the two have not been more sharply separated in past discussions. Here, however, psychology, which is simply one of the sciences, is described as succeeding to the special task of philosophy—the endeavor to get back of all the facts discovered and systematized by science to the ultimate reality behind them. If Mr. Snider chooses to call this "psychology," he has perfect right to do so; even without reason. Some years since, Dr. F. E. Abbot set forth "the American theory of universals," as distinct from the Greek and the German theory. Somewhat on this adventurous line Mr. Snider sets forth the discipline of psychology as specifically American, saying, "It would be the exception in all history if the American spirit should find its adequate self-expression in a Greek or German philosophy." Our countrymen, we

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believe, have carried off the honors in the advancement of psychology as a science, but there is no apparent reason, except that of an individual illusion, for terming us "the psychological State."

Autobiography of a Thief (The). Recorded by Hutchins Hapgood. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 349 pages. $1.25, net. (Postage, 10c.)

These annals of the life of a New York professional thief have every appearance of being essentially genuine; and they have sociological value in that they show under what influences a bright boy in bad surroundings turns to crime "for fun" more than for money directly. Mr. Hapgood declares that this is the real story of an individual, edited and retold only enough to give it form and clearness. One feels that the thief has not so much reformed as abandoned his criminal career because he can no longer follow it with safety; and there is a certain relish and self-complacency in "Light-Fingered Jim's" relation of his exploits which makes one doubt whether this would be a desirable book for all young men to read.

Babel and Bible. Two Lectures Delivered before the Members of the Deutsche Orient Gesellschaft in the Presence of the German Emperor. By Friedrich Delitzsch. Edited by C. H. W. Johns, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 226 pages. $1.50.

It will be remembered that Professor Friedrich Delitzsch delivered two lectures before the German Emperor, the first on January 13, 1902, the second on January 12, 1903. The former was published last year and was noticed in our columns. The two have now been published together in one volume, under the same title, with controversial notes by the author and an introduction by the editor. Of the controversy that arose as a consequence of these lectures The Outlook has already given reports. Professor Delitzsch's opponents are of two classes: one consists of those who reject his statements of fact because they seem to fall foul of certain doctrines which they consider fundamental; the other consists of those who do not accept his conclusions because they do not consider them sustained by the evidence. The issue is confused, and the reason therefor can easily be seen by an examination of this book. Professor Delitzsch is himself responsible. He has seen fit to inject into his discussions interpretations of Old Testament religion, concerning which he speaks as an amateur, instead of confining himself to modern discoveries in Babylonia, concerning which he speaks as an expert. He shows no sign of having either historical imagination, literary insight, or appreciation of the necessary stages in the processes of religious evolution. Whatever his contributions to Assyriology, he cannot be said to have made any contributions to the understanding of the Old Testament, except as he may have proffered material which others can use. There is nothing alarming about the idea that the ancient Hebrews owed their religious conceptions to Babylon; but the very facts which he cites to prove it only emphasize the contrary idea. That he does not see this seems to be due to his failure to understand what the religious conceptions of the ancient Hebrews really were.

Baron Stiegel. By Rev. M. H. Stine, Ph.D. The Lutheran Publication Society, Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 331 pages. $1.25.

Basis of Morality (The). By Arthur Schopenhauer. Translated by Arthur Brodrick Bullock, M.A. Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London. 5×7½ in. 285 pages.

Schopenhauer's disappointment was great, and his indignation also, when this "prize essay" was not approved by the Danish Royal Society of Sciences in 1840. That judgment is not likely to be reversed by many readers now. Reading Schopenhauer, however, is intellectually whetting, as his translator intimates, and may serve a turn if one has no preferable whetstone at hand. For the sharpening of insight into ethical principles and problems one needs to look elsewhere than to the author of this sentence: "The character is an original datum, immutable, and incapable of any amelioration through correction by the intellect."

Bible in the Nineteenth Century (The): Eight Lectures. By J. Estlin Carpenter, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 512 pages. $3.50.

This valuable work is both a history and an interpretation of history. The changes of opinion in the advance of learning are fully recorded. The road is seen lined with defunct theories, both traditional and innovating, that have dropped by the way. The result, as Professor Carpenter says, is that we have ceased to ask of the Bible what it cannot give; we prize it more highly for what it gives. In the later Hebrew prophecy, and its vision of an ultimate religious unity, we discover the product of a teleological interpretation of history, whose worth for religion is beyond price. The primitive cycle of Messianic ideas—a heavenly Son of man descending, the graves simultaneously yielding up their occupants to stand before his judgment bar—belongs to an interpretation of the universe which science has abolished; but we may look behind these, as picturesque symbols, to the divine reality, the ultimate triumph of spiritual humanity over all opposing forces. Among the religious autobiographies of our race the ethnic scriptures must be reckoned with our Bible, for they add their testimonies to some of its chief truths. Yet it towers above them as our noblest continuous witness to the reality of divine things. Historically, Jesus embodies the loftiest goodness that we know. To make it universal religion will still describe as the salvation of the world. Both as a record of progress in Christian learning and thinking, and as a reverent and judicious appreciation of its present results, this is an illuminating work.

Big Game Fishes of the United States (The). By Charles Frederick Holder. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 435 pages. $2, net.

What tiger and lion hunting is to the land sportsman, the taking of the tarpon and the leaping tuna, Mr. Holden says, is to the sea angler, who often takes his life in his hands

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when he plays his huge game in the open sea. This book tells about these big fish and about the dolphin, the halibut, the drum, the sea-bass, and many other of the large fish. A colored picture of a royal battle with a tarpon makes an effective frontispiece, and there are many other pictures. Besides all possible information for the sportsman, the author gives the scientific data in orderly and complete form. All of the volumes of this series are notably well printed.

Building Superintendence: A Manual for Young Architects, Students, and Others Interested in Building Operations as Carried on at the Present Day. By T. M. Clark. (New Edition, Revised and Rewritten.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 306 pages.

Captain's Toll-Gate (The). By Frank R. Stockton. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Castle Omeragh. By F. Frankfort Moore. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 404 pages. $1.50.

The horrors of war, a little romance, and a dash of the supernatural are the elements compounded in this narrative of the time of Cromwell's invasion of Ireland. The action occasionally flags somewhat, and the book is too long; but it gives an interesting picture of the domestic life of the Irish nobility and gentry of the period.

Christ's Cure for Care. By Mark Guy Pearse. Eaton & Mains, New York. 5×7½ in. 143 pages. 40c., net.

Danish Life in Town and Country. By Jessie Brochner. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 4½×7½ in. 266 pages. $1.20, net.

So far as we know, the reader can find such information as is here contained in no other single volume. The author informs us about a large variety of subjects—the people, their government and politics, their church and religion, their system of public education, their army and navy, their administration of justice, their local governments, their trades-unions and social democracy. About these things we learn, as is desirable, before we are informed as to the king and the courts, Danish art and letters, music and the stage. The concluding chapters, however, are perhaps of greater interest than the foregoing, since they treat of subjects about which not so much knowledge is commonly possessed—on the position of woman in Denmark, on the press, country life, moor reclamation, freehold farming, and agricultural co-operation. As regards hospitals, homes for the blind and deaf and for imbeciles, and for men in want of temporary care, Denmark yields to no country; her works of humanity now constitute her highest claim to international notice; once she was a power able to cope with England herself politically and in military strength. The author tells us that the Danes have accepted their reverses in the great political games of the nations with notable resignation. The only bitter sting left is the severance from the mother country by the war of 1864 of the southern provinces; many a pious Danish pastor still publicly prays for "our brethren in South Jutland."

Detached Pirate (A). By Helen Milecete. Illustrated, Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 347 pages. $1.50.

A charming young English woman, reckless and flippant, but sound at heart, is the self-styled pirate of this book. Her erratic career on both sides of the Atlantic, as exploited by herself in a series of letters to her "dearest friend," we follow with interest, and regret when we find "The End" at the bottom of the page.

Diary of John Evelyn, Esquire, F.R.S. Edited by William Bray. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 809 pages. $1.25, net.

The latest addition to the very attractive Caxton Series, printed in large type, on antique paper, with photogravure frontispiece, a number of illustrations, and bound in flexible leather.

Dictation Studies in Melody and Harmony for Children. By Mary Frances Frothingham. Clayton F. Summy Co., Chicago. 7¾×10½ in. 80 pages.

Dominant Strain (The). By Anna Chapin Ray. Illustrated. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 350 pages. $1.50.

Although a professional singer is the hero of this book, it is better-class New York society, and not musical Bohemia, into which the reader finds himself introduced. The dialogue is often witty; the characters always interesting and well managed; and a good story is told. But the thought will intrude on the pleasant impression with which we close the book, that in real life obstacles are not so conveniently and expeditiously removed.

Emerson's Complete Works: Centenary Edition. Edited by his Son, Edward Waldo Emerson. Vol. I. **Nature Addresses and Lectures.** Vol. II. **Essays.** Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. Per vol., $1.75, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Encyclopædia Biblica. Edited by T. K. Cheyne, D.Litt., D.D., and J. Sutherland Black, M.A., LL.D. Vol. IV. Q to Z. The Macmillan Co., New York. 7¼×10½ in. 2,722 pages. $5, net.

Reserved for later notice.

English Literature: An Illustrated Record in Four Volumes. Vol. I. From the Beginnings of the Age of Henry VIII. By Richard Garnett. Vol. III. **From Milton to Johnson.** By Edmund Gosse. The Macmillan Co., New York. Price, $6 per vol.

Reserved for later notice.

Experimental Psychology and Its Bearing upon Culture. By George Malcolm Stratton, M.A. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 331 pages. $2.

Professor Stratton's work on the lines of the new psychology is noteworthy for the continuity of this with the old which it exhibits, thereby correcting a current impression that a breach exists. The old psychology worked with introspection; the new works with laboratory experiments. But, as Professor Stratton says, introspection is really at the bottom of every method; it supplies indispensable data. The present volume gives an untechnical account of certain groups of psychological experiments, and shows their significance for intellectual and moral interests, as well as their immediate scientific result. The general reader will gain from these pages a conviction of the practical value of the scientific research

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that seems remote from the concerns of daily life. The new psychology has often been taken to be "psychology without a soul." Psychologists do not now content themselves with referring in general terms to "the soul" in explanation of natural processes, as geologists are not satisfied with a bare reference to "nature." Scientific explanation must be more specific. But the new psychology, while thus waving aside the soul with one hand, is earnestly beckoning it back with the other. "So far," says Professor Stratton, "as the reality of the soul is concerned, the new psychology is in advance of the old. It makes the mind a living, personal thing." In his chapter on "Illusions" he notes the complete refutation which illusions, when understood, supply to the common idea that in its experience of external nature the mind is passive. It is the activity of the mind in effecting a union of subject and object that produces our actual perception. The problem of the interaction of mind and body Professor Stratton leaves an open question still, but with the conviction that one must strike a middle course between those who see only the physical side and those who are blind to it.

Felix. By Robert Hichens. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 432 pages.

Mr. Hichens, with his usual tendency toward the abnormal, gives us here a study of the morphine habit, sometimes going into revolting detail. The reader admires the author's unquestionable ability, and follows the painful story with unflagging interest, but not exactly with pleasure. A clever lad, fresh from the reading of Balzac, and flushed with pride in his supposed knowledge of the world, falls a victim to the wiles of a brilliant woman, and is almost the last of all who know her to discover that she is a debased and hopeless victim of the morphine habit, and has used him merely to cloak her vice and to borrow money from him in order that she may procure the drug. The study of the young man, with his fits of boldness and of timidity, his absurd belief in his power of analyzing character and his actual gullibility, is, psychologically speaking, extremely well done. Mr. Hichens has written several able novels; one wishes he would write a story that should be agreeable.

Feuerbach: The Roots of the Socialist Philosophy. By Frederick Engels. Translated by Austin Lewis. Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago. 4×7 in. 133 pages. 50c.

Fire Insurance and How to Build. By Francis C. Moore. Illustrated. The Baker & Taylor Co., New York. 6×9½ in. 860 pages. $5, net.

Gentleman of the South (A): A Memory of the Black Belt from the Manuscript Memoirs of the Late Colonel Stanton Elmore. Edited without change by William Garrott Brown. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 232 pages. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Golden Kingdom (The). By Andrew Balfour. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 424 pages. $1.50.

A very elaborate tale of marvels and adventures in the search for a wonderful people and the treasures of their "golden kingdom." As a piece of ingenious invention and exciting hairbreadth escapes it is not without ability.

Gordon Keith. By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 448 pages. $1.50.

Reviewed in the issue of May 16, in the group of books entitled "The New Novels."

Hamlet. By William Shakespeare. Edited by L. A. Sherman. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 323 pages. 25c.

Harzreise (Die). By Heinrich Heine. Edited by Leigh R. Gregor, B.A., Ph.D. Ginn & Co., Boston. 4½×7 in. 183 pages. 40c.

History of Philosophy. By William Turner, S.T.D. Ginn & Co., Boston. 5½×8½ in. 674 pages. $2.50.

A recent and excellent "History of Philosophy" devotes about twenty pages to a subject to which Dr. Turner here devotes nine times as many—the scholastic philosophy of mediæval Europe. The prevailing estimate of it has undoubtedly been derived more from the period of its decay in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries than from its golden age in the thirteenth. The presentation of Scholasticism in a measure adequate to its importance in the history of speculative thought—an aim frankly avowed by Dr. Turner—is certainly a sufficient reason for the addition of another text-book to the excellent manuals already in use. "The core of Scholasticism," as defined by Dr. Turner, is certainly a principle to which the modern scientific world accords supreme importance—"the doctrine of the continuity and independence of the natural with respect to the supernatural order of truth." With this it held that there can be no contradiction between the data of revelation and the discoveries of reason. The later doctrine of the Averroists, that what is true in philosophy may be false in theology, and *vice versa*, struck at the heart of Scholasticism, and, in combination with other causes—political motives, religious decay, shortened courses for theological degrees, the bestowment of these by institutions of inferior rank, and the exaggerated valuation of mere dialectics—brought about its decline and subsequent disrepute. Dr. Turner's work has other merits than the fresh study it provokes and the fresh estimate it proposes of a chapter in the history of philosophy whose importance has not in our time been so amply recognized. One may, however, question his conclusion, that never has the wave of human thought carried its crest to so high an altitude as in the golden age of Scholasticism. Not in that period only, but throughout the work, the student is well served both by reference to the sources and by critical comments. The thoughtful estimate made of the phenomena and tendencies of contemporary philosophy prompts a question of some novelty as well as interest—whether, in the method which aims to unite the objective with the subjective, and to exhibit the continuity of the natural and the supernatural, the path of modern thought may be unwittingly striking into the very line attempted by the mediæval thinkers in a time less promising for full success.

Ideas of Good and Evil. Where There is Nothing. By W. B. Yeats. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in.

These two volumes by one of the most inter-

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esting and probably the most typical member of the group of Celtic writers who have organized a kind of propaganda in Great Britain during the past few years are capital illustrations of the Celtic spirit; and if they are supplemented by Renan's "Poetry of the Celtic Races" and Matthew Arnold's well-known "Study of Celtic Literature," they will give the reader as intelligent an idea of the Celtic genius and of the qualities which it has contributed to our literature as any other body of books, not because they are full of definite information, but because they are so sympathetically interpretative of the original elements of Celtic imagination. It is this element which Renan has in mind when he says, "No race communed so intimately as the Celtic race with the lower creation." It had "a love of nature for herself, a vivid feeling for her magic, commingled with the melancholy a man knows when he is face to face with her and thinks he hears her communing with him about his origin and his destiny." Add two or three more phrases from Renan, such as that declaring that the Celtic race "has worn itself out in mistaking dreams for realities," and recall Matthew Arnold's admirable characterization of its revolt against the tyranny of the fact, and one gets an insight into a very elusive race type. Mr. Yeats's chapter on "The Celtic Element in Literature" is one of the most interesting in "Ideas of Good and Evil" by reason of its elusiveness, its delicacy, its sentiment, its aloofness, so to speak, from the interests of modern life. It puts one in touch with the later Celtic genius, while his play "Where There is Nothing" brings into striking relief the immense suggestiveness and the complete indefiniteness of the Celtic imagination, its sense of intimacy with nature, with the lower orders of life, as Renan says, its consciousness of the Infinite on all sides, of the pressure upon life of undefined ideas and indistinct influences, its inability to deal with facts, to organize ideas, to solve problems in any distinct way. These two books are as far removed from the conventional literature of the day as possible. It is a relief to read them, and it is also a profitable exercise of the mind.

Indigestion: Its Prevention and Cure. By F. Herbert Alderson, M.B. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×6 in. 130 pages. 50c., net.

Legal Tender: A Study in English and American Monetary History. By S. P. Breckinridge. The Decennial Publications. Second Series. Vol. VII. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 5¾×9 in. 181 pages.

Log of a Cowboy (The). By Andy Adams. Illustrated. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 387 pages. $1.50.

As the name indicates, this is the simple record of a land voyage—a five months' trip with the herds on the trail from Mexico to Montana. It is a refreshing chronicle, and bears the unmistakable stamp of truth, reflecting the monotony and laboriousness of the old-time life of the plains as clearly as it does the adventurous and sportive side of conventional representations. The book has several fine illustrations by E. Boyd Smith.

Love Thrives in War: A Romance of the Frontier in 1812. By Mary Catherine Crowley. Illustrated. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 340 pages. $1.50.

Detroit during the War of 1812 is the scene of this story. Laurente, daughter of a French Creole mother and a Scotch father (type of the strange admixture of civilizations in the society of the time and place) is a charming heroine; but there are too many characters and too much history in the book.

Modern Civic Art; or, The City Made Beautiful. By Charles Mulford Robinson. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 9×5¾ in. 381 pages. $2.50, net.

Reserved for later notice.

More Money for the Public Schools. By Charles W. Eliot. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×7 in. 193 pages. $1, net.

Municipal Public Works: Their Inception, Construction, and Management. By S. Whinery. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 241 pages. $1.50.

A popular presentation of the engineering problems of modern municipalities. The author, unlike most of the writers in this field, is, on the whole, an opponent of the present tendency to extend municipal ownership, and a defender of the contract system of conducting public works. The volume contains some interesting statistics—particularly on the subject of street paving—but it is, on the whole, both deficient and defective on the statistical side. The attempt, for instance, to estimate the community's "economic" loss for every death at $5,000—or five times the average wealth—is hardly convincing, and the assumption that the cost of our water systems might be practically cut in two, if consumption were reduced to one-half or one-third by the use of meters, is altogether a violent one for most cities. As a rule, the operating expense of water plants is insignificant compared with the interest on the cost of installing the system. This cost is not in proportion to the amount of water used by the ordinary householder.

Old China Book (The). By N. Hudson Moore. The Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 300 pages. $2, net.

A book that will be welcomed by collectors and by casual owners of old china. It shows very plainly what is and what is not valuable, and why; tells the history of the manufacture, gives the different marks, and illustrates the subject with many reproductions of old, rare, and quaint pieces. Staffordshire, lustre, Wedgwood, Liverpool, Worcester, and many other kinds of ware are differentiated and many particular specimens are minutely described. The book fills a place not occupied by any other work of its kind to be had at a moderate price.

Open Door (The). By Henry van Dyke. (The Presbyterian Pulpit.) The Presbyterian Board of Publication and Sabbath-School Work, Philadelphia. 5×7½ in. 160 pages. 75c., net.

Reserved for later notice.

Pilgrimages to Methodist Shrines. By William Henry Meredith. Jennings & Pye, Cincinnati. 5×8 in. 335 pages. $1.25.

These memoranda of places and persons of note in the early history of Methodism, British

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and American, but chiefly British, make a good guide-book for future travelers on the same road, especially those who share the author's laudable interest in the history of his own Church. Points of comparison and contrast between British and American Methodism are treated in the Appendix.

Pipes of Pan. No. II. From the Green Book of the Bards. By Bliss Carman. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 4½×7½ in. 137 pages. $1.

The second in the series of reprints from Mr. Carman's verse already published, with additions. The first volume was noticed at some length in The Outlook at the time of its appearance, and further comment will be made on the series as a whole at a later date.

Political History of Slavery (A). By William Henry Smith. In 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×9 in. 350 pages. $4.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Portraitures of Julius Cæsar. A Monograph by Frank Jesup Scott. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 7×10 in. 185 pages. $5, net.

Mr. Scott's monograph is one of peculiar charm and merit. Ideals of the real Julius Cæsar have long shaped themselves in our minds out of the aggregate of the imperfect fragments preserved to us. Out of all the preserved coins and gems, statues and busts bearing evidence of belonging to Cæsar's age and intended to represent him, certain points of physiognomy have been settled. The present book gives a detailed survey of these coins, gems, busts, and statues. It is a book which recreates for us the great Roman in a singularly graphic and vivid manner.

Prince Hagen: A Phantasy. By Upton Sinclair. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 249 pages. $1.50.

Questionable Shapes. By W. D. Howells. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 219 pages. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Remembrances of Emerson. By John Albee. Robert Grier Cooke, New York. 5×8 in. 202 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Sacrifice of the Shannon (The). By W. Albert Hickman. Illustrated. The Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 323 pages. $1.50.

An ingenious and lively romance, having as its subject the great ice-fields of the St. Lawrence Gulf in the winter-time, with the dangers and adventures of ice-bound ships.

Selection from the Best English Essays (A): Illustrative of the History of English Prose Style. Chosen and Arranged by Sherwin Cody. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 4½×7 in. 415 pages. $1, net.

A selection from ten masters of the essay, including Bacon, Swift, Addison, Lamb, De Quincey, Carlyle, Emerson, Macaulay, Ruskin, and Matthew Arnold, with an introduction covering the ground historically in outline, commenting on the artistic element in prose, and pointing out some of the possibilities of further development.

Side-Lights on Immortality. By Levi Gilbert, D.D. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 233 pages. $1, net.

The author has given his book an appropriate title. Without endeavor at originality, he has aimed at helpfulness, undertaking, not to convince skepticism, but to confirm belief. From a wide range of literature he produces the testimony of eminent thinkers, and from various positions in the wide field of thought gives a lucid and popular exhibition of the grounds of the Christian doctrine.

Silent Maid (The). By Frederic Werden Pangborn. L. C. Page & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 223 pages. $1.

A German folk-lore tale, not particularly well told.

Sociology: The Science of Human Society. By J. H. W. Stuckenberg, LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8½ in. In 2 vols. $4.50, net.

A clear philosophical survey of the forces governing the development of human society, not only in the past and present epochs in which the family and the State have been the dominant socializing factors, but also in the dawning epoch in which international solidarity shall assume a supreme position in the guidance of the co-operative work of mankind. The distinguishing spirit of the author is seen in the emphasis put upon the ethical factors in human evolution.

Song of the Cardinal (The): A Love Story. By Gene Stratton-Porter. Illustrated. The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis. 6½×9 in. 163 pages.

The bird's search for a mate, its adventures with rivals and enemies, its relations with human admirers—all this and more is told with delicate charm and beautifully illustrated from the author's photographs. The book is one that may well be put on the same shelf with James Lane Allen's "Kentucky Cardinal."

Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law. Edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University. Vol. XVII. Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Indiana. By William A. Rawles, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6×9¾ in. 336 pages. $2.50.

Texas: A Contest of Civilizations. By George P. Garrison. (American Commonwealths.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 4½×7 in. 311 pages. $1.10, net.

A clear account of the history of Texas, and particularly of that part of it which witnessed the triumph of Anglo-American over Spanish civilization. The Americanization of the great territory, proceeding from the establishment of the Austin colony, is lucidly shown to have made its annexation practically inevitable. Events, however, since the outbreak of the rebellion are given in too meager outline. Judged as a whole, the work, while creditable to the scholarship of the author, and useful to those wishing a compact account of the commonwealth, can hardly be considered adequate. Few States have a more interesting past, and few in all probability have a more important future. The importance of Texas is only beginning to be realized by Northern students.

Under Dog (The). By F. Hopkinson Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 332 pages. $1.50.

Reviewed in the issue of May 16 in the group of books entitled "The New Novels."

World's Great Orators and Their Best Orations (The). By Charles Morris, LL.D. Illustrated. The John C. Winston Co., Chicago. 6½×9½ in. 639 pages. $1.50.

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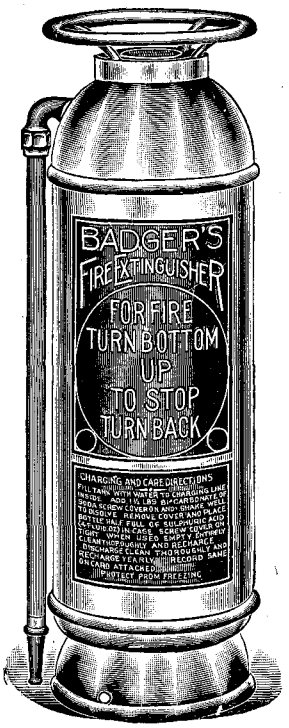

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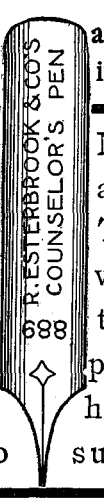

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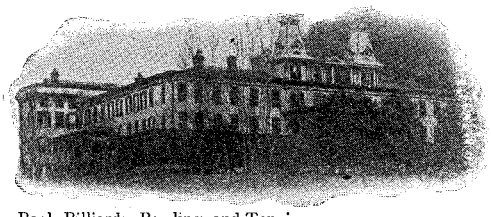

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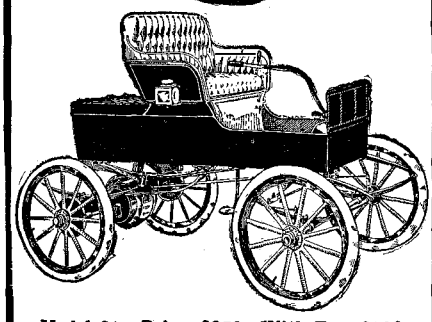

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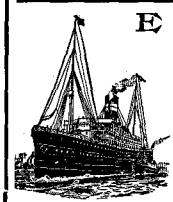

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